AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF

Official Organ

Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf
Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf

Edited by

IRVING S. FUSFELD

Under the Direction of

PERCIVAL HALL, of the District of Columbia
FRANK M. DRIGGS, of Utah
MADISON J. LEE, of Kentucky
ELWOOD A. STEVENSON, of California
IGNATIUS BJORLEE, of Maryland
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J. W. BLATTNER, of Oklahoma

Executive Committee of the Conference

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VOLUME LXXX **NUMBER 5**

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The AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF is published bi-monthly during the school year, appearing in the months of January, March, May, September, and November. The subscription is $2.00 a year, payable in advance; January number, one dollar a copy; single numbers otherwise, 50 cents each. The subscription for foreign countries is $2.20 a year.

Publication office: 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wisconsin. Editorial office: Kendall Green, Washington, D.C. Entered as second-class matter at the Postoffice at Menasha, Wisconsin. Acceptance for mailing at the special rate of postage provided for in the Act of February 28, 1925, authorized June 25, 1932.

Subscriptions made payable to the AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF may be sent to 450 Ahnaip St., Menasha, Wis., or to the Editor, Gallaudet College, Kendall Green, Washington, D.C.

GEORGE BANTA PUBLISHING COMPANY, MENASHA, WIS.

VOL. LXXX NOVEMBER, 1935 No. 5

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF

Is Scouting the Answer?

By R. O. WYLAND, PH.D.

Director of Education and Relationships, Boy Scouts of America
New York City

EDUCATION is a serious and complicated enough matter when the pupils involved are, generally speaking, fairly normal in every way. For the teacher who deals in special education for children physically handicapped, the problem becomes even more intricate and challenging to effort and imagination.

Questions that have to be met and solved in one way or another are varied and familiar to all teachers in schools or institutions working with blind or crippled children or, as in the case of our present readers, with children wholly or partially without the sense of hearing.

How can we best help these youngsters in our charge to overcome, or failing that, to offset their physical disability or limitations? What incentives can we find to offer to stimulate them to greater self-reliance and initiative, counteract apathy and defeatism, the hampering sense of not quite belonging anywhere, exorcise the insidious germs of inferiority complex or the even more deadly virus of self pity? How can we inoculate them with ambition and self-confidence, rouse them to a state of greater social-mindedness, prepare them for a niche of their own in a world which seems to be devised chiefly for the normal and the physically completely fit?

To such questions many teachers are finding to a surprising degree that Scouting is the answer, at least a partial solution to many psychological problems. Scouting is sound,

vital, dynamic, full of interest and stimulus for every boy. The handicapped lad as well as his carelessly luckier brother rises to its lure as eagerly as trout to a May fly, as many teachers who have been using its program successfully can testify.

Once his interest is stirred and he plunges wholeheartedly into Scouting, the handicapped boy finds release from bondage, discovers a new world for himself from which his physical limitations by no means bar him. For the blind or crippled Scout many phases of the Scout program are necessarily closed, though even here the achievement Scout rank is open to him if he cannot meet all the tests of regular Scouting. But for the deaf Scout there are far fewer obstacles to complete enjoyment and profit in Scout work. He need forego no thrill and adventure of camp fire or hike, can build as good a fire in the open, tie as firm and intricate knots, get as much fun out of following a trail or semaphoring a message or paddling a canoe as any boy possessed of all his faculties does. Perhaps his observation of bird plumage, flight in air or track in snow is even keener and more accurate because failing in one sense he has intensified his power in another. He cannot know the beauty of a thrush song in twilight woods, or a bluebird's trill from a hedge row, but he can take just as much delight in "stalking" the one for a snapshot or building a house for spring tenancy for the other.

He need not stop with Tenderfoot rank as many a cripple must, or be debarred as a blind boy must be from star study or his fourteen mile hike. He can, if he has the will and the perseverance and the courage to conquer obstacles and stay the course, go on to First Class or Eagle rank, pass every test that a hearing Scout brother does, and on to the Merit Badges, those electives in Scouting in which deaf boys so often amazingly excel, their deft fingers and trained eyes making up for not being able to hear as other Scouts do.

One cannot deny that there are certain difficulties in the path which must be overcome by the boy's own ingenuity and determination and the help of the patient and resourceful Scoutmaster. Since instruction cannot be given orally, except where lip-reading has become practically perfected,

much greater use must be made of blackboard directions and other written matter, and practical demonstration must often take the place of words, to an even greater extent than it does in regular Troop or Patrol Training. Luckily the Scout Handbook and Patrol Leaders' Handbook and many excellent pamphlets on every conceivable Scout activity are available for the boy's own use, and all put so simply and interestingly that to a great extent every boy may be his own teacher. Learning by doing is particularly applicable to a deaf Scout's progress.

Certainly among the many fine Troops which are registered in various institutions throughout the country, nothing seems to be insuperable to the ambitious deaf lad. "Defeat does not down him" because he will not admit defeat, means to be, and is a First Class Scout in every sense.

The famous Clarke School in Northampton, Mass., in which Mrs. Coolidge once taught, has a banner Scout Troop, which has been in existence since 1917, and which during the war sold $35,000 worth of Liberty Bonds—perhaps because they wouldn't as well as couldn't take "no" for an answer. They have won many awards in open competition with other Scout Troops as has the widely heralded Troop in the Indiana State School for the Deaf, of Indianapolis, a group dating back to 1922, which has turned out many Eagles, and has done remarkable work in dozens of Merit Badge projects.

Recently, too, from the California State School the report comes that a group of deaf Scouts received the highest ratings in the Berkeley Merit Badge Show in which more than forty Troops participated. Printing is this Troop's pet project and they not only presented a striking exhibit in this Merit Badge subject, but also do the practical Good Turn continuously of printing nearly all the circulars and announcements for the use of the Local Council, a boon most gratefully received.

Another Troop in Malone, N. Y., first organized in 1928, has proved conclusively that deafness is not only no insurmountable obstacle in Scouting, but even whets ambition and makes record breaking a not unexpected feat. Handicapped both in speech and in hearing, this unit has never-

theless many First Class Scouts and many Merit Badges to the credit of its various members. The Troop has thrown itself heart and hand into Scout work, under their Teacher-Scoutmaster, Mr. Darrel W. Rider, to whom much credit is due. A large room was set aside in the school for the Troop's use at the beginning and the boys decided quite early in the game to decorate and outfit the place for themselves which they have done so effectively and with such colorfulness and originality that it has become one of the show places of the town as well as the school.

Maryland, Illinois, Louisiana, Minnesota, Arizona, Michigan, Connecticut, New Jersey—one cannot name them all —the call of the Scout reaches effectively into practically every state school for the deaf, there to lay the foundation for stalwart manhood.

All this is good Scouting, such as any Troop might be proud of. But it goes even deeper than this. These boys are re-discovering life from which they had felt themselves to a degree exiled. They are forgetting their own handicap in their absorption in healthy, happy work and play, expressing their own latent gifts and abilities in hobbies and projects of their choosing. They have ceased to be diffident or self-withdrawn, to lose their self-protective instinct to prefer to play the game alone. They have become group conscious, in freeing themselves from undue self-consciousness, constant gnawing awareness of being "different." The Scout Oath and Law, with its voluntarily subscribed to impulsion to helpfulness, cheerfulness, loyalty, trustworthiness, and sense of obligation to others, is playing its vital part in helping these boys to become more manly and happy and useful, while at the same time it opens magic casements to a wider world than their hitherto necessarily restricted one and brings opportunities of normal satisfaction hitherto denied them.

For the boys themselves it has proved the greatest possible boon. For the teachers whose task it is to help them to counteract their handicaps and make the most of what they have or may have, it has been proved over and over a veritable Godsend.

Illinois Plan for Classification of Pupils[1]

By TUNIS V. ARCHER, M.A.
Principal in the Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

PARTLY FROM FORCE of circumstances, partly from choice, the Illinois School has embarked upon a system of classification somewhat different from that used in other schools for the deaf. This plan has been in use in public schools, but so far as we know it has not been applied to schools for the deaf.

For some years the conviction had been growing with us that the teacher load, especially in the upper classes of schools for the deaf, might be increased without loss of efficiency. A greatly increased enrollment and the insistent demand for a revaluation of educational methods and results furnished us the incentive to put our plan into operation. For two or three years we had been experimenting with objective tests in an effort to determine what, if any, of these tests might be used with deaf pupils. We reached the conclusion that the new Stanford Achievement Tests were the best for our purpose.

Accordingly, in the spring of the year 1933, Form V of this test was given to all of the pupils in and above the second grade. A close study of these scores strengthened our belief that it might be used as a partial basis at least for a classification of pupils. In the spring of the year 1934, Form Z of the same test was given to the same grades. The scores of this test were placed on the same profiles as those of the preceding one, thus showing at a glance what improvement, if any, each pupil had made during the year. With this information a separate schedule for each pupil was worked out, placing him, as nearly as the conditions under which we work would permit, in the grade where the tests showed he belonged. This placement in many instances was only approximate as the set-up of our school, in its crowded condition, would not permit anything more exact.

[1] A paper read before the Section on Supervision of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill., June 18, 1935.

We had approximately 350 pupils to classify. A study of the whole group showed that about fifty of them were hopelessly below grade, over-age and apparently of low mentality. These were placed in what we call ungraded classes with instructions to the teachers to stress language, reading, and arithmetic. For the other 300 we found that we had fifteen teachers available, an average of twenty to a class. In order to provide for our vocational work it was necessary to divide these 300 into two groups. The four highest grades, that is, six, seven, eight and nine, constitute our advanced department and are under the instruction of five teachers. The other grades, namely, three, four and five, are under ten teachers and are our intermediate department. Each pupil in each of these groups is required to carry five subjects. The school day is divided into six periods of 45 minutes each, allowing one period more than is required for the five subjects. This is our remedial or opportunity period. The pupils who are especially weak in any subject are sent to the teacher of that subject for extra work.

A second part of our plan is that pupils will be promoted upon a credit basis. This has not, as yet, been fully applied but works like this: One credit in each subject is allowed for each semester's work successfully completed. Applied to our advanced department, a total of 40 credits are required for graduation. When a pupil shows tenth grade ability in any subject, measured by a standard objective test, he may drop that subject and devote his time to other studies. We also allow certain credits for vocational work, thus enabling that class of pupils who are hopelessly deficient in one, or possibly two, academic studies to receive credit sufficient for graduation.

For our classification this fall we shall have the following information:

1. The result of the objective tests of April 1934 and of 1935.
2. The amount of progress or retrogression in each subject.
3. The grade placement for the school year just closed.
4. The teachers' estimate of the pupils' work.

Based upon all of this information, and within the limits that our school set-up will allow, we expect to grade again on this individual classification.

We recognize that the experience of one year is wholly inadequate for forming a reliable judgment. However, it indicates that we were not wrong in our original thinking that the upper classes may be increased in size without seriously interfering with their advancement.

In presenting this plan of classification, we are not saying that it is the best one for all schools, or that it will solve all the difficulties inherent in the problem. We do say that from our limited experience we believe it to be more scientific and to result in better classification than the old method of relying wholly on subjective tests and the judgment of individual teachers. So confident are we of this that we expect to continue the general plan as here outlined, modifying it as the conditions under which we work and the requirements of our pupils may demand.

Suggestions from the Use of Standard Tests at Gallaudet College[1]

By IRVING S. FUSFELD, M.A.
Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C.

LAST FALL, September 1934, a class of 37 students entered the Preparatory Class of Gallaudet College. At the close of the college year, June 1935, twelve of these students—practically a third of the group—had dropped out of the class, owing to inability to continue with the work.

This statement epitomizes a condition that occurs each year. Is it necessary to subject a third of the entering class to the trying experience of failure? This is a problem which the Faculty of the college is striving to solve, and with the help of the schools a solution may be attained.

For the past six years, shortly after the opening of the college term, a standardized test, the Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Examination, has been given to all students entering the Preparatory Class. A test of this type is used, first, because in content it approximates the academic work of our schools for the deaf, and second, because it is one of the most widely used and most successful of such tests.

Let us go back for a moment and examine the results of the test taken by the Preparatory Class of last fall. Of the 37 entering students, the median achievement appeared to be practically the tenth grade. The student attaining the highest score could have been regarded as safely within the average college level; the student registering the lowest score could have been comfortably placed in the lower seventh grade of public school work. Between these two extremes were ranged the 35 other students. The first point to be noted, then, is the marked variation in school achievement within so small a group as this entering class, a variation that imposes a heavy teaching burden upon the instructors of this class. A note of encouragement, however, should be made at this point. The lowest student last fall was the

[1] A paper read at a meeting of the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill., June 19, 1935.

"best" lowest since we began our testing program in 1929; that is, the difference between the highest student and the poorest student has been much greater in previous entering classes.

For the same group the average age of those *above* the median was nineteen years and three months; of those *below* the median it was twenty years and eight months; that is, the better prepared students are the younger students. A peculiar difference as to sex was also noted. Of those *above* the median twelve were young men and six were young women; of those *below* the median the ratio was exactly reversed, six young men and twelve young women; that is, the young men of the group seemed better prepared in their school work. Also, the tendency for deafness to appear either at birth or in early childhood was more marked for those in the lower half of school achievement as determined by the test.

The weakest results for the group were obtained in the test in physiology and hygiene; the best results in the tests were found in arithmetic and language usage (grammar). The median results for the same class also excelled all previous median levels in paragraph meaning, in literature, and in arithmetic; approximately the usual levels were attained in vocabulary understanding, grammar, and physiology, but the class fell below the previous levels of achievement in history and geography.

But the striking feature of the test was the fact that at the close of the year, of the eighteen students *above* the median only two—or one ninth—had to drop out, whereas of the eighteen students *below* the median ten—or more than half—failed in their work.

In a report on What Standard Tests Have Shown at Gallaudet College, at the Trenton meeting of the Conference in 1933, the main points made were:

1. The use of a standard test, such as the Stanford Achievement Test, has furnished the Faculty of the college with a means of predicting with a fair degree of assurance possible success or failure for entering students when they deal with college work.

2. The composite results for more than 150 Preparatory Class students over a four-year period indicated a mass median of approximately tenth grade educational achievement.

3. Practically three fourths of those *above* the composite median were successfully carrying the work of the college course, while more than three fifths of those *below* the median were unable to continue with their college work.

4. The particular weaknesses of entering students were marked in knowledge of physiology and hygiene, in vocabulary understanding, and in grasping the meaning of paragraph reading.

5. Each successive class brings to the college Preparatory Class a group in which the individuals show an exceedingly wide variation in educational attainment, from college level at one end to as low as the fourth grade at the other. This indicates a marked divergence in standards for graduation in the several schools for the deaf from which our students come.

6. There is apparently a relationship between school achievement level on the one hand and such factors as age of onset of deafness, age on entrance to college, and sex. When deafness appears at birth or in early childhood, or when the student is a young woman, or when the age on entrance to college is high, the achievement level tends to dip low, with an inverse relationship between these same personal factors and a high achievement level.

Since the report at Trenton we have added to the number of those to whom the same tests were given, so that we are now able to report on a total of 195 students.

The net result again indicates a general median achievement for entering students of very close to the tenth grade. Listing them in rank order, we find the following arrangement of median grade levels achieved in the different parts of the tests:

	Test Subject	*Score*	*Grade Level*
1.	Arithmetic Computation	111	Above 10th
2.	Spelling	110.5	Above 10th
3.	Language Usage (Grammar)	104	10th
4.	Geography	104	10th

5.	History and Civics	101	Slightly below 10th
6.	Arithmetic Reasoning	100	Upper 9th
7.	Word Meaning	96	9th
8.	Literature	96	9th
9.	Physiology and Hygiene	93	Middle 8th
10.	Paragraph Meaning	91	Lower 8th
	Total	100.1	Slightly below 10th

A significant characteristic of this order of achievement in subject matter by our entering students at once becomes apparent, namely, a definite tendency toward loss of strength in dealing with subjects which depend upon language understanding.

A summary of individual deviation in school achievement as indicated by these tests may be of interest to executives of schools for the deaf. This information may be best shown in the following arrangement of grade levels attained in the separate parts of the test by the highest and lowest students in each case, set off against the respective medians.

Test Subject	*Grade of Student*		
	Highest	*Median*	*Lowest*
Paragraph Meaning	College rank	Lower 8th	Lower 3rd
Vocabulary	College rank	9th	Lower 3rd
Spelling	College rank	Above 10th	Upper 5th
Language Usage	College rank	10th	Below 2nd
Literature	College rank	9th	Upper 2nd
History-Civics	College rank	Slightly below 10th	4th
Geography	College rank	10th	Upper 4th
Physiology-Hygiene	College rank	Middle 8th	Upper 3rd
Arithmetic Reasoning	Almost College rank	Upper 9th	3rd
Arithmetic Computation	Almost College rank	Above 10th	5th

How well these tests are indicative of the subsequent work in college of these entering students is revealed by a brief analysis of their standing two years after the tests were given. Thus, arranging them according to the scores received on the tests, we find for the 195 individuals that of those in the

First quartile, three failed in the Preparatory Class and one could not get beyond the Freshman year; in the

Second quartile, eleven failed in the Preparatory Class, and six could not go beyond the Freshman year; in the

Third quartile, fourteen failed in the Preparatory Class,

and eleven more fell out in the Freshman Class; and finally in the

Fourth quartile, 33 failed in the first year, and eight more in the second year.

Of those who scored in the first quartile, eight per cent failed before the close of the Freshman Year in college; in the second quartile, the proportion of failure was 35 per cent. For the third quartile the proportion of failure was 52 per cent, and in the last quarter it was 85 per cent.

Interpreted in terms of the median level, it is to be noted that the amount of failure among those *above* the line was 21 per cent, whereas *below* it, it was 68 per cent; that is, the likelihood of failure below the median is more than three times as great as it is above the median.

These simple figures point very clearly to a striking and positive relationship between the achievement level attained in these standard tests and the chance of continuing through with the work of the college curriculum.

In the opening part of this paper was propounded the question: Is it necessary to subject a third of the entering class to the trying experience of failure? The schools which send us their graduates may themselves help answer this question by the simple expedient of employing a standard achievement test to determine objectively the school achievement level of prospective candidates for admission to college. The use of a practical test of that kind should in advance inform the school staff concerning the promise of success or failure for prospective college students.

You are no doubt aware of the present method by which students are admitted to Gallaudet College. It is a two-fold plan by which candidates are 1. Certified by their schools in certain prescribed subjects—English history, American history, and elementary physics—and 2. Required to pass in examinations prepared by the College Faculty in arithmetic, algebra, composition, reading and grammar.

Frankly, the above method, long in vogue, may not appear to be the most satisfactory procedure. The task of preparing pupils for the examinations appears to throw

an especially heavy burden upon the schools. Frankly, too, the Faculty of the college has its misgivings concerning the results obtained by the old method. Under it too many "misfits" have been able to enter college, students who are unable to carry college work successfully.

Four years ago, Professor Powrie V. Doctor of our Faculty, after a careful study by which results obtained with the Stanford Achievement Test for one year were compared with the results obtained by the old method of admission by examination and certification, discovered that the former were more accurate in forecasting the grade of work of the students of the Preparatory Class. During the past year, Dr. Kenneth Braly, a student in the Normal Department of the college, made a further and exhaustive study of the data accumulated on the use of standard tests at the college for the period 1929 to 1933. After elaborate statistical treatment of the data, he was very definite in his conclusion that the standard achievement test furnished the best single device by which to predict likelihood of success or failure in the work of the Preparatory year.[2]

In the light of all this recent analysis of test results at Gallaudet College, the Faculty has authorized a statement that it plans a complete modification of entrance examination requirements. It is quite likely the old plan of written examinations sent out by the college will be radically altered. The co-operation of the schools will be depended upon to a great extent. The college probably will call for certification that candidates for admission have pursued successfully a required course of study including fixed recitation hours, but admission to the college will be determined mainly by the results of comprehensive standardized achievement tests.

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[2] Dr. Braly ("Prediction of Gallaudet College Grades"—Normal Department Thesis, Gallaudet College, 1935) found the following relationships with respect to success in college work:

	r	*P.E.*
Correlations between Grade Point Indices and Stanford Achievement Tests	+.66	.03
College Entrance Examinations	+.40	.04
School Certificates in Prescribed Subjects ..	+.36	.04
Chronological Age	—.26	.05

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The Experimental Preschool Group of Clarke School[1]

By MARY A. WAGNER, M.A.
Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

SIX CHILDREN, ranging in age from three years and seven months to five years, entered Clarke School in September 1933 as an experimental nursery class. Their activities have been directed by a trained nursery school teacher. Assistance in procedure has come from the supervising teacher and the Research Department. The basic purpose of this experiment has been an attempt to determine the curriculum which can most satisfactorily meet the needs of the preschool deaf child. The approach has been made from the nursery school point of view.

The daily program was flexible in order to use the educational opportunities of the moment. The necessary physical routines were the basis of time divisions. In general outline, a school day was as follows:

8:15– 8:30	Arrival and removal of wraps
8:30– 9:55	Free and directed play
	Sense training
	Articulation and speech
	Rhythm
	Speech-reading
9:55–10:15	Mid-morning lunch
10:15–10:30	Rest (on cots)
10:30–10:45	Group Sonotone (music, stories)
10:45–11:35	Outdoors (if weather permitted)
11:35–12:00	Preparation for dinner
12:00–	Dinner (separate dining room)
1:00– 2:00	Nap
2:00– 2:45	Directed play
	Training of residual hearing
	Speech-reading
2:50–	Dismissal

The schoolroom equipment has included large building blocks and planks, Blox-that-Lox trains, nested blocks, large beads, paints, crayons, scissors and paste, wheel toys, balls, dolls and doll furniture, picture books, and wooden toy

[1] A paper read before the Section on Preschool and Kindergarten Training, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill., June 18, 1935.

animals. The outdoor equipment includes swings, jungle-gym, sand boxes, steps and incline runways.

The progress in socialization during these two years has been most interesting. From crude, individual investigations of the environment has come group play of a highly organized and imaginative character. Construction developed from mere piling of blocks to simple "animal houses" for children impersonating cats, dogs, cows, etc. Then came boats, trains, automobiles and airplanes in which the children went "fa' 'way." Accompanying vocalizations and dramatization have served to assure the observer exactly what was being expressed. Painting at the easel produced some good buses and houses as well as expressive animals and people. During the past year the paintings from this group have compared favorably with those from the four-year-old group at the Smith College Nursery School.

The approach to speech reading has been made upon group experiences and items of interest in the classroom. Visits to a farm, a nearby store, a home, the college greenhouse, the pond, etc., have been recorded photographically. These pictures became the basis for drill in learning the simple speech-reading language about the excursions. Names of things in the room, articles of clothing, food, etc., were given so that an understanding of single words and connected language developed simultaneously. Bi-aural hearing tubes and an individual Sonotone were used during the speech-reading and speech periods in an effort to stimulate every possible avenue of development.

Training in the ability to imitate included simple body movements, games, rhythmic drills, and tongue gymnastics as well as the customary order of sense training exercises. Imitation has of course been the basis of the approach in the development of speech.

Dr. Clarence V. Hudgins has had charge of the speech program for this group. The synthetic or syllable rather than the analytic or element method has been used. The fundamental aim is no different from that of other speech training programs in that it attempts to develop as nearly normal speech as possible in deaf children. Specifically the procedure followed attempted:

1. To obtain a natural voice from the child and use it to properly execute the syllable movement which is the fundamental element of speech.
2. To master the phrasing movement.
3. To have the child learn the function of the consonant as an arresting or releasing position in the syllable.
4. To establish the fundamental rhythmic patterns of English speech through increasingly complex syllable drills.
5. To introduce meaningful phrases based upon incidents of experience as soon as possible.
6. To utilize to the fullest any residual hearing the child may possess.

The vocalized phrase was the first step in putting this program into effect. Getting the child to produce voice in his own "natural manner" at the command of the teacher consisted of teaching him to imitate the sustained vowel. When this could be done satisfactorily, it was broken into syllables (*ah, ah, ah, ah*) stopping the tone by the use of the chest muscles rather than the closing of the glottis. When syllables were produced the child was taught to accent one in the phrase. Possible combinations included accents in two-, three-, four-, and five-syllable drills.

The consonant was never taught alone but as something which belongs to and is associated with the vowel. *P* in the arresting position *(up, up, up)* was taught first. The releasing position was induced by having the child repeat the phrase at high speed—*up, up, up* becoming *pu, pu, pu.* It was then possible to make syllables with the consonant in both positions. *Pup* is probably the most convenient syllable to use first, the vowel quality being as short as possible. The syllables were then repeated in groups or phrases with accents: *pup, pup, PUP, pup,* etc.

T was taught second and combined with *P* as soon as possible, thus: *put, tup.* At this point the fundamental vowels *a(r), o'o, ee* were taught. Up to this time the indefinite vowel had been used in the drills. When the fundamental vowels could be used in combinations with *P* and *T,* the continuitives *F* and *TH* were introduced. When these have been learned, the child is usually ready for simple words or phrases.

The entire first year was devoted to syllable drills; words and phrases have received the chief emphasis during this second year. About twenty words and *"I fell," "I saw—,"*

"I have—" are attempted with fair accuracy by half the class. On the whole, the results of the speech program have not been so satisfactory as we had hoped. It is possible to suggest reasons for this. In the first place, a period of one hour each day for individual work with six children is too short and too concentrated to obtain best results. Speech work should be done throughout the entire day at every opportunity which presents itself. In the second place, a lack of teaching experience with young deaf children has been a real handicap.

This experimental group will enter the regular school routine next year and be treated as an entering class with preschool experience. In addition to what speech these children may or may not know, they have more than a hundred nouns in speech-reading as well as descriptive sentences of pictures and experiences. They know the silent reading forms of fifteen commands, thirty nouns, six *"to have* sentences," and connected language for experiences such as:

We went outdoors.
We flew a kite.

We went to a farm.
We saw cows and horses.
We saw many turkeys.

We went outdoors.
We played with a ball.
We jumped rope.
We played marbles.

The children vocalize a great deal and try to express themselves through a speech-language medium despite the crudeness and inaccuracy of their attempts.

The results of these two years are difficult to determine. The group has not been matched for control purposes and it will be impossible to estimate how much of their future achievement has been determined by this experience.

"What is the best program for the preschool deaf child?" remains an unanswered question. These past two years have served to indicate certain things which may or may not be done satisfactorily. The need for further study and experimentation is apparent. Contacts with his normal peers seem essential for the deaf child during these early years. It remains to be seen how much can be accomplished when the young deaf child is in a regularly organized nursery school directed by trained persons who are also experienced in the techniques of teaching speech and language.

The Federal Survey of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing

Part V Continued[1]

Types of Occupation Followed

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AS WAS STATED at the beginning of Part V of the report, Tables IX to XII inclusive which follow deal with data based on employers' reports concerning deaf or hard-of-hearing persons employed at the time of the survey (herein referred to as those employed at present).

RELATION OF FACTORS REPORTED BY EMPLOYERS TO PRESENT OCCUPATION

General Educational Requirements for Position, According to Employer.—Table IX deals with the 3,463 deaf and hard-of-hearing men and 1,448 women who were employed at the time of the survey, and whose employers reported the education required of them. The occupational distribution of those persons having positions for which no education was required and of those in occupations for which only an elementary education was required was very similar. Of the 1,105 men having positions for which no education was required, nearly all were in three occupation groups: 58.7% in the operatives group, 21.5% in the manufacturing group, and 10.2% in the domestic service group. The same three groups included over 80% of the 1,559 men whose positions

[1] This is the concluding portion of the final section of the report. Other sections have appeared in the ANNALS as follows: Part I, Preliminary Data, March 1935, pp. 116-125; Part II, The Employment Status of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing, March 1935, pp. 126-142; Part III, Present Earnings, May 1935, pp. 200-219; Part IV, Occupational Success and Related Factors, May 1935, pp. 220-242; Part V, Types of Occupation Followed, September 1935, pp. 342-366.

required them to have an elementary education, 43.3% having been in the operatives group, 32.4% in the manufacturing group, and 5.6% in the domestic service group.

With higher educational requirements the occupational distributions changed considerably. Of the 564 men whose positions required a high school education, 30.9% were in the manufacturing, 19.5% in the clerical, 15.4% in the professional and semi-professional service, 12.9% in the operatives, and 9.9% in the trade groups. Of the 235 men required to have had a college education, 69.8% were in the professional and semi-professional service, 8.9% in the clerical, and 8.1% in the trade groups.

For the women, as in the case of the men, the distribution among occupation groups was similar in the two categories with the lower educational requirements, but these two categories taken together, the third with the high school requirement, and the fourth with a college education required, differed widely. Of the 404 women whose occupations required no education, 58.4% were in the operatives group, 26.3% were in the domestic service group, and 11.6% were in the manufacturing group. Of the 520 women required to have an elementary education, 45.8% were in the operatives group, 26.4% were in the domestic service group, 8.8% were in the clerical group, 7.5% were in the professional and semi-professional service group, and 6.9% were in the manufacturing group. The 350 women whose positions required them to have had high school educations were distributed quite differently, with 42.9% in the clerical, 33.1% in the professional and semi-professional service, 8.0% in the domestic service, and only 6.3% in the operatives groups. Of the 174 women in positions requiring college educations, 89.6% were in the professional and semi-professional service and 8.6% were in the clerical group.

The second per cent distribution section of Table IX shows that of all the persons reported, 31.9% of the men and 27.9% of the women were engaged in occupations for which no education was required; only an elementary education was required of 45.0% of the men and 35.9% of the women; a high school education was required for the positions held

TABLE IX

Relation of General Educational Requirements for Position to Present Occupation (According to Employer)

Present occupation	Totals		General education required for position							
			Male				*Female*			
	Male	*Female*	None	Elementary	High School	College	None	Elementary	High School	College
			Number distribution							
Total reported	3,463	1,448	1,105	1,559	564	235	404	520	350	174
Agriculture, fishing, and forestry	77	3	27	43	5	2	0	2	1	0
Manufacturing and mechanical trades	923	89	237	505	174	7	47	36	6	0
Transportation and communication	56	2	10	35	11	0	0	2	0	0
Trade	147	41	23	49	56	19	3	17	20	1
Public service	33	2	7	16	7	3	0	0	2	0
Professional and semi-professional service, and recreation and amusement	305	318	7	47	87	164	7	39	116	156
Domestic and personal service	215	272	113	87	13	2	106	137	28	1
Clerical occupations	224	215	21	72	110	21	4	46	150	15
Managers (except in domestic and personal service), foremen, inspectors	81	10	11	31	28	11	1	3	5	1
Operatives, laborers, and porters (except in stores)	1,402	496	649	674	73	6	236	238	22	0
			Per cent distribution among occupation groups of the categories indicated by the separate headings							
Total reported			100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, etc.			2.5	2.8	0.9	0.8	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.0
Manufacturing, etc.			21.5	32.4	30.9	3.0	11.6	6.9	1.7	0.0
Transportation, etc.			0.9	2.2	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0
Trade			2.1	3.1	9.9	8.1	0.7	3.2	5.7	0.6
Public service			0.6	1.0	1.2	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.			0.6	3.0	15.4	69.8	1.7	7.5	33.1	89.6
Domestic, etc. service			10.2	5.6	2.3	0.8	26.3	26.4	8.0	0.6
Clerical occupations			1.9	4.6	19.5	8.9	1.0	8.8	42.9	8.6
Managers, etc.			1.0	2.0	5.0	4.7	0.3	0.6	1.4	0.6
Operatives, etc.			58.7	43.3	12.9	2.6	58.4	45.8	6.3	0.0
			Per cent distribution among the different categories indicated of each occupation group							
Total reported	100.0	100.0	31.9	45.0	16.3	6.8	27.9	35.9	24.2	12.0
Agriculture, etc.	100.0	100.0	35.1	55.8	6.5	2.6	0.0	66.7	33.3	0.0
Manufacturing, etc.	100.0	100.0	25.7	54.7	18.8	0.8	52.8	40.5	6.7	0.0
Transportation, etc.	100.0	100.0	17.9	62.5	19.6	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
Trade	100.0	100.0	15.7	33.3	38.1	12.9	7.3	41.5	48.8	2.4
Public service	100.0	100.0	21.2	48.5	21.2	9.1	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.	100.0	100.0	2.3	15.4	28.5	53.8	2.2	12.3	36.5	49.0
Domestic, etc. service	100.0	100.0	52.6	40.5	6.0	0.9	39.0	50.3	10.3	0.4
Clerical occupations	100.0	100.0	9.4	32.1	49.1	9.4	1.9	21.4	69.7	7.0
Managers, etc.	100.0	100.0	13.6	38.2	34.6	13.6	10.0	30.0	50.0	10.0
Operatives, etc.	100.0	100.0	46.3	48.1	5.2	0.4	47.6	48.0	4.4	0.0

by 16.3% of the men and 24.2% of the women; and the positions of 6.8% of the men and 12.0% of the women required a college education. The various occupation groups showed very irregular distributions with respect to the educational requirements, as compared with the distribution of all those reported. In occupations requiring no education the men predominated disproportionately in the domestic service and operatives groups especially; the women in the manufacturing, operatives, and domestic service groups. In occupations requiring elementary school education, the same disproportion existed in the transportation, agriculture, and manufacturing groups for the men, and in the domestic service, operatives, trade, and manufacturing groups for the women. In positions for which a high school education was required the following occupation groups predominated disproportionately: The clerical, trade, managers, and professional and semi-professional service groups for the men; and the clerical, trade, and professional and semi-professional service groups for the women. In the positions with college education requirements, the same disproportion existed in the professional and semi-professional service, managers, and trade groups for the men, and in the professional and semi-professional service group for the women.

In general, then, Table IX shows that a college education was of major importance to the men and women engaged in professional pursuits, and that a high school education was required of a large proportion of those in clerical occupations, in trade, and of those who were managers. The only types of occupations in which education beyond the elementary grades was of little importance were agriculture, domestic service, and the group comprising the operatives and laborers.

Trade Training Required for Position, According to Employer.—As shown in Table X, the employers reported that they required no trade training of 1,743 men, distributed as follows: 50.2% in the operatives group, 9.9% in the domestic service, 9.5% in the manufacturing, 8.6% in the clerical, and 7.3% in the professional and semi-professional service groups. Of the 559 men required to have school trade train-

ing, 36.5% were in the manufacturing, 24.1% in the professional and semi-professional service, 20.4% in the operatives, and 7.0% in the clerical groups. Apprenticeship training was required of 1,146 of the men. Of these, 47.6% were in the manufacturing and 36.1% were in the operatives groups.

The positions held by 854 women required no trade training. Most of these were distributed among four occupation groups as follows: 32.4% in the operatives group, 23.7% in the domestic service, 21.6% in the professional and semi-professional service, and 12.8% in the clerical groups. Of the 290 positions requiring school trade training held by women, 33.1 per cent were in the professional and semi-professional service group, 28.3% were in the clerical group, 19.7% were in the operatives group, and 13.1% were in the domestic service group. Of the 293 women whose positions required apprenticeship training, 55.3% were in the operatives, 11.3% in the domestic service, and 11.3% in the professional and semi-professional service groups.

The second per cent distribution section of Table X shows that of the 3,448 positions held by men which were reported, 50.6% required no trade training, 16.2% required school trade training, and 33.2% required apprenticeship. Of the 1,437 women reported, the positions of 59.4% required no trade training, those of 20.2% required school trade training, and those of 20.4% required apprenticeship training. Of the men in the positions requiring no training, those in the public service, domestic service, transportation, agriculture, clerical, trade, and operatives groups predominated disproportionately, though the first and third of these groups may be disregarded because of the small numbers involved. Men in the manufacturing and mechanical trades were much less than proportionately represented in this group. Of the men whose positions required school trade training, those in the professional and semi-professional service group were much more than proportionately represented. Of the men required to have apprenticeship training, those in the manufacturing and managers groups predominated.

The women whose positions required no trade training

TABLE X

Relation of Trade Training Required for Position to Present Occupation (According to Employer)

PRESENT OCCUPATION	TOTALS		TRADE TRAINING REQUIRED FOR POSITION					
			Male			*Female*		
	Male	*Female*	None	School Trade Training	Apprenticeship	None	School Trade Training	Apprenticeship
			NUMBER DISTRIBUTION					
Total reported	3,448	1,437	1,743	559	1,146	854	290	293
Agriculture, fishing, and forestry	77	3	56	11	10	1	2	0
Manufacturing and mechanical trades	915	81	166	204	545	49	9	23
Transportation and communication	56	2	42	3	11	2	0	0
Trade	147	47	94	20	33	26	3	18
Public service	33	2	28	2	3	1	1	0
Professional and semi-professional service, and recreation and amusement	298	313	127	135	36	184	96	33
Domestic and personal service	215	273	173	21	21	202	38	33
Clerical occupations	223	211	150	39	34	109	82	20
Managers (except in domestic and personal service), foremen, inspectors	81	9	32	10	39	3	2	4
Operatives, laborers, and porters (except in stores)	1,403	496	875	114	414	277	57	162
			PER CENT DISTRIBUTION AMONG OCCUPATION GROUPS OF THE CATEGORIES INDICATED BY THE SEPARATE HEADINGS					
Total reported			100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, etc.			3.2	2.0	0.9	0.1	0.7	0.0
Manufacturing, etc.			9.5	36.5	47.6	5.7	3.1	7.8
Transportation, etc.			2.4	0.5	1.0	0.2	0.0	0.0
Trade			5.5	3.6	2.9	3.0	1.0	6.1
Public service			1.6	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.0
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.			7.3	24.1	3.1	21.6	33.1	11.3
Domestic, etc. service			9.9	3.7	1.8	23.7	13.1	11.3
Clerical occupations			8.6	7.0	2.9	12.8	28.3	6.8
Managers, etc.			1.8	1.8	3.4	0.4	0.7	1.4
Operatives, etc.			50.2	20.4	36.1	32.4	19.7	55.3
			PER CENT DISTRIBUTION AMONG THE DIFFERENT CATEGORIES INDICATED OF EACH OCCUPATION GROUP					
Total reported	100.0	100.0	50.6	16.2	33.2	59.4	20.2	20.4
Agriculture, etc.	100.0	100.0	72.7	14.3	13.0	33.3	66.7	0.0
Manufacturing, etc.	100.0	100.0	18.1	22.3	59.6	60.5	11.1	28.4
Transportation, etc.	100.0	100.0	75.0	5.4	19.6	100.0	0.0	0.0
Trade	100.0	100.0	64.0	13.6	22.4	55.3	6.4	38.3
Public service	100.0	100.0	84.8	6.1	9.1	50.0	50.0	0.0
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.	100.0	100.0	42.6	45.3	12.1	58.8	30.7	10.5
Domestic, etc. service	100.0	100.0	80.4	9.8	9.8	74.0	13.9	12.1
Clerical occupations	100.0	100.0	67.3	17.5	15.2	51.6	38.9	9.5
Managers, etc.	100.0	100.0	39.5	12.3	48.2	33.3	22.2	44.5
Operatives, etc.	100.0	100.0	62.4	8.1	29.5	55.8	11.5	32.7

predominated disproportionately in the domestic service group. The same was the case with the women who were required to have school trade training who were employed in the clerical and professional and semi-professional service groups of occupations. Of the women required to have apprenticeship training, those in the trade, operatives and manufacturing groups were disproportionately predominant.

In general, then, the great majority of the persons considered in Table X were employed in positions for which school trade training was not required by the employer. School trade training which any of them had had may have been helping them in their work, but any such training apparently was of no importance to this large majority in securing the positions which they had at the time of the survey.

Employer's Estimate of Skill.—The present occupation and the employer's estimate of the skill of the employee was reported in the cases of 3,458 men and 1,448 women. The relationship of these factors is shown in Table XI. Only 43 men were reported as failing, 30.2% of whom were in the operatives group, 25.6% in the manufacturing, 16.3% in the domestic service, 16.3% in the trade, and 7.0% in the clerical groups. Of the 304 men reported as just getting by, 38.5% were in the operatives group, 23.3% in the manufacturing, 9.9% in the domestic service, 6.9% in the professional and semi-professional service, 6.6% in the trade, and 6.2% in the clerical groups. One thousand seventy-two of the men reported were succeeding fairly well. These were distributed as follows: Operatives group, 43.2%; manufacturing, 27.3%; domestic service, 7.1%; and professional and semi-professional service, 7.0%. Of the 2,039 men reported as succeeding very well, 39.5% were in the operatives group, 26.8% in the manufacturing, 10.2% in the professional and semi-professional service, 7.1% in the clerical, and 5.0% in the domestic service groups.

Only 15 of the women were reported as failing, 46.7% of these being in the operatives group, 20.0% in the professional and semi-professional service, 13.3% each in the trade and domestic service, and 6.7% in the clerical groups.

TABLE XI

Relation of Employer's Estimate of Skill to Present Occupation

Present Occupation	Totals		Employer's Estimate of Skill							
			Male				*Female*			
	Male	*Female*	Failing	Moderate (Getting By)	Succeeding Fairly Well	Succeeding Very Well	Failing	Moderate (Getting By)	Succeeding Fairly Well	Succeeding Very Well
			Number Distribution							
Total reported	3,458	1,448	43	304	1,072	2,039	15	93	405	935
Agriculture, fishing, and forestry	78	3	1	12	31	34	0	1	0	2
Manufacturing and mechanical trades	923	81	11	71	293	548	0	7	26	48
Transportation and communication	55	2	0	7	16	32	0	0	0	2
Trade	147	47	7	20	42	78	2	7	14	24
Public service	33	2	0	4	7	22	0	0	0	2
Professional and semi-professional service, and recreation and amusement	304	318	0	21	75	208	3	10	72	233
Domestic and personal service	214	273	7	30	76	101	2	16	78	177
Clerical occupations	223	216	3	19	57	144	1	15	61	139
Managers (except in domestic and personal service), foremen, inspectors	81	10	1	3	12	65	0	1	1	8
Operatives, laborers, and porters (except in stores)	1,400	496	13	117	463	807	7	36	153	300
			Per Cent Distribution among Occupation Groups of the Categories indicated by the Separate Headings							
Total reported			100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, etc.			2.3	4.0	3.0	1.7	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.2
Manufacturing, etc.			25.6	23.3	27.3	26.8	0.0	7.5	6.4	5.1
Transportation, etc.			0.0	2.3	1.5	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Trade			16.3	6.6	3.9	3.8	13.3	7.5	3.5	2.6
Public service			0.0	1.3	0.6	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.			0.0	6.9	7.0	10.2	20.0	10.8	17.8	24.9
Domestic, etc. service			16.3	9.9	7.1	5.0	13.3	17.2	19.3	19.0
Clerical occupations			7.0	6.2	5.3	7.1	6.7	16.1	15.1	14.9
Managers, etc.			2.3	1.0	1.1	3.2	0.0	1.1	0.2	0.8
Operatives, etc.			30.2	38.5	43.2	39.5	46.7	38.7	37.7	32.1
			Per Cent Distribution among the Different Categories indicated of each Occupation Group							
Total reported	100.0	100.0	1.2	8.8	31.0	59.0	1.0	6.4	28.0	64.6
Agriculture, etc.	100.0	100.0	1.3	15.4	39.7	43.6	0.0	33.3	0.0	66.7
Manufacturing, etc.	100.0	100.0	1.2	7.7	31.8	59.3	0.0	8.6	32.1	59.3
Transportation, etc.	100.0	100.0	0.0	12.7	29.1	58.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Trade	100.0	100.0	4.8	13.6	28.6	53.0	4.3	14.9	29.8	51.0
Public service	100.0	100.0	0.0	12.1	21.2	66.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.	100.0	100.0	0.0	6.9	24.7	68.4	0.9	3.1	22.7	73.3
Domestic, etc. service	100.0	100.0	3.3	14.0	35.5	47.2	0.7	5.9	28.6	64.8
Clerical occupations	100.0	100.0	1.3	8.5	25.6	64.6	0.5	6.9	28.2	64.4
Managers, etc.	100.0	100.0	1.2	3.7	14.8	80.3	0.0	10.0	10.0	80.0
Operatives, etc.	100.0	100.0	0.9	8.4	33.1	57.6	1.4	7.3	30.8	60.5

Of the 93 women reported as just getting by, 38.7% were in the operatives group, 17.2% in the domestic service, 16.1% in the clerical, 10.8% in the professional and semi-professional service, 7.5% in the manufacturing, and 7.5% in the trade groups.

The 405 women who were succeeding fairly well were distributed as follows: 37.7% in the operatives group, 19.3% in the domestic service, 17.8% in the professional and semi-professional service, 15.1% in the clerical, and 6.4% in the manufacturing groups. The distribution of the 935 women reported as succeeding very well was as follows: Operatives group, 32.1%; professional and semi-professional service, 24.9%; domestic service, 19.0%; clerical occupations, 14.9%; and manufacturing, 5.1%.

The second per cent distribution section of Table XI shows that only an insignificant number of employees were failing in their work—1.2% of the men and 1.0% of the women. Eight and eight tenths per cent of the men and 6.4% of the women were just getting by. Of these there was an excess proportion of men in agriculture, men in transportation, men and women in trade, men in public service, men in domestic service, and women in the operatives group.

Since 31.0% of the men and 28.0% of the women were listed as succeeding fairly well, those persons exceeding these proportions in the various occupation groups were as follows: Men in agriculture (39.7%), women in trade (29.8%), men and women in manufacturing (31.8 and 32.1% respectively), men and women in domestic service (35.5 and 28.6% respectively), and men and women in the operatives group (33.1 and 30.8% respectively). Less than the proportionate number of men were succeeding fairly well in the managers, public service, professional and semi-professional service, clerical and trade groups. The same was true of the women in the managers, and professional and semi-professional service groups.

The majority of the men (59.0%) and women (64.6%) fell into the group reported as succeeding very well. The occupation groups (disregarding those including only a few

individuals) followed these proportions fairly closely, except for the excessive predominance of men and women in the professional service and managers groups, and except for the deficiency of men in agriculture and domestic service.

Table XI shows, then, that 90.0% of the men and 92.6% of the women reported were succeeding either fairly well or very well, according to their employers. The occupation groups in which the proportion of successful employees was greatest were as follows: The managers, the professional and semi-professional service, the manufacturing, and the operatives groups for the men; and the manufacturing, professional and semi-professional service, domestic service, clerical, and operatives groups for the women.

Employer's Estimate of Prospects for Promotion.—Table XII deals with the 3,222 men and 1,391 women whose occupations and prospects for promotion were reported by their employers. Of the 2,276 men reported to have no prospects for promotion, 44.6% were in the operatives group, 24.8% in the manufacturing, 7.3% in the domestic service, and 6.9% in the professional and semi-professional service groups. Of the 716 men estimated to have fair prospects for promotion, 32.6% were in the operatives group, 31.8% in the manufacturing, 11.3% in the professional and semi-professional service, 9.8% in the clerical, and 4.5% in the domestic service groups. The 230 men estimated to have excellent prospects for promotion were distributed among the occupation groups as follows: 26.1% in the professional and semi-professional service, 24.8% in the manufacturing, 20.0% in the operatives, 10.4% in the clerical, and 7.4% each in the managers and in the trade groups.

The women were concentrated in four occupation groups. Of the 964 estimated to have no prospects for promotion, 37.2% were in the operatives group, 22.2% in the domestic service, 18.0% in the professional and semi-professional service, and 11.6% in the clerical groups. The distribution of the 277 women with fair prospects for promotion was as follows: 32.1% in the operatives group, 26.4% in the professional and semi-professional service, 24.9% in the clerical, and 9.4% in the domestic service groups. Of the 150 women

TABLE XII

Relation of Employer's Estimate of Prospects for Promotion to Present Occupation

Present occupation	Totals		Employer's estimate of prospects for promotion					
			Male			*Female*		
	Male	*Female*	None	Fair	Excellent	None	Fair	Excellent
			Number distribution					
Total reported	3,222	1,391	2,276	716	230	964	277	150
Agriculture, fishing, and forestry	70	3	57	13	0	3	0	0
Manufacturing and mechanical trades	849	72	564	228	57	61	10	1
Transportation and communication	49	2	36	12	1	2	0	0
Trade	135	46	89	29	17	32	8	6
Public service	31	2	23	6	2	1	0	1
Professional and semi-professional service, and recreation and amusement	299	311	158	81	60	173	73	65
Domestic and personal service	205	262	167	32	6	214	26	22
Clerical occupations	214	211	120	70	24	112	69	30
Managers (except in domestic and personal service), foremen, inspectors	75	10	47	11	17	8	2	0
Operatives, laborers, and porters (except in stores)	1,295	472	1,015	234	46	358	89	25
			Per cent distribution among occupation groups of the categories indicated by the separate headings					
Total reported			100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, etc.			2.5	2.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0
Manufacturing, etc.			24.8	31.8	24.8	6.3	3.6	0.7
Transportation, etc.			1.6	1.7	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.0
Trade			3.9	4.0	7.4	3.3	2.9	4.0
Public service			1.0	0.8	0.9	0.1	0.0	0.7
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.			6.9	11.3	26.1	18.0	26.4	43.3
Domestic, etc. service			7.3	4.5	2.6	22.2	9.4	14.6
Clerical occupations			5.3	9.8	10.4	11.6	24.9	20.0
Managers, etc.			2.1	1.5	7.4	0.8	0.7	0.0
Operatives, etc.			44.6	32.6	20.0	37.2	32.1	16.7
			Per cent distribution among the different categories indicated of each occupational group					
Total reported	100.0	100.0	70.7	22.2	7.1	69.3	19.9	10.8
Agriculture, etc.	100.0	100.0	81.4	18.6	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
Manufacturing, etc.	100.0	100.0	66.4	26.9	6.7	84.7	13.9	1.4
Transportation, etc.	100.0	100.0	73.5	24.5	2.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
Trade	100.0	100.0	65.9	21.5	12.6	69.6	17.4	13.0
Public service	100.0	100.0	74.2	19.4	6.4	50.0	0.0	50.0
Professional and semi-professional service, etc.	100.0	100.0	52.8	27.1	20.1	55.6	23.5	20.9
Domestic, etc. service	100.0	100.0	81.5	15.6	2.9	81.7	9.9	8.4
Clerical occupations	100.0	100.0	56.1	32.7	11.2	53.1	32.7	14.2
Managers, etc.	100.0	100.0	62.6	14.7	22.7	80.0	20.0	0.0
Operatives, etc.	100.0	100.0	78.4	18.1	3.5	75.8	18.9	5.3

estimated to have excellent prospects for promotion, 43.3% were in the professional and semi-professional service, 20.0% in the clerical, 16.7% in the operatives, and 14.6% in the domestic service group.

The second per cent distribution section of Table XII shows that 70.7% of the men and 69.3% of the women were estimated to have no prospects for promotion, 22.2% of the men and 19.9% of the women had fair prospects, and only 7.1% of the men and 10.8% of the women had excellent prospects for promotion. Of those having no prospects for promotion, there was a considerable excess as compared with the above percentages in the domestic service, agriculture, and operatives groups for the men, and in the manufacturing, domestic service, and operatives groups for the women. Those having fair prospects for promotion were proportionately in excess in the clerical, professional and semi-professional service, manufacturing, and transportation groups for the men, and in the clerical and professional and semi-professional service groups for the women. Those reported to have excellent prospects were present in much more than proportionate numbers in the managers, professional and semi-professional service, trade, and clerical groups for the men, and in the professional and semi-professional service and clerical groups for the women.

The principal facts shown in Table XII are that a large proportion of the employees reported had no prospects for promotion (70.7% of the men and 69.3% of the women), and that the occupation groups in which the prospects for promotion were best were the managers group for men and the professional and semi-professional service, clerical, and trade groups for both men and women.

It is interesting to note that in spite of the small proportion of employees estimated to have prospects for promotion by their employers, Table XI showed that essentially the same group of employers reported that 90.0% of the men and 92.6% of the women were succeeding fairly well or very well.

Summary

According to the reports of the employers, 76.9% of the men and 63.8% of the women reported were not required to have more than an elementary education. This was due largely to the fact that about one half of the employees were in the operatives and domestic service groups, which have low educational requirements. (Table IX.) Even a greater percentage (about 83%) of the employees was not required to have had school trade training, although 33.2% of the men and 20.4% of the women were required to serve apprenticeship. The lack of required trade training was to a great extent accounted for by the large numbers in the operatives and domestic service groups. (Table X.)

Of the persons reported by their employers, 90.0% of the men and 92.6% of the women were considered to be succeeding either fairly well or very well. (Table XI.) However, 70.7% of the men and 69.3% of the women had no prospects for promotion in the opinions of their employers. The large operatives and domestic service groups included considerably more than their share of those persons with no prospects for promotion, although the prospects were poor in almost all fields of work. (Table XII.)

Review of the L. P. F. 1934-1935

I. S. F.

THE LAST YEAR among the school journals—the Little Paper Fraternity—was especially productive in contributions of value to the work of educating the deaf. The range of interest of the topics considered covered the usual wide scope, so that again we have a fairly well rounded view of our work. This time the major emphasis appears to be upon vocational needs.

Outstanding among the papers appearing in the school journals of the past year was the one on Present Problems in the Education of the Deaf, read by Dr. Percival Hall, president of Gallaudet College, at the convention of the National Association of the Deaf in New York City, July 25, 1934, and reproduced first in the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal* for August 2, 1934. The needs, or problems, enumerated by Dr. Hall are as follows:

1. The establishment of sufficient well equipped schools to take care of the educational work required.

2. The enactment in every state of as nearly as possible uniform compulsory school laws, requiring the attendance of deaf children in schools for the deaf between the ages of six and eighteen.

3. An extension of the course of study in American schools for the deaf to include the high school years.

4. Fitting our boys and girls during their school life to earn their bread and butter through properly chosen vocations. The problem of schools for the deaf is first to find in what vocations the boys and girls are most likely to succeed; second to provide proper shop equipment and high-grade teachers for instruction in these lines; third to establish prevocational training, and fourth, actually to place boys and girls after graduation.

5. Teacher training. With advanced educational requirements, with better organized training classes, with more en-

couragement to deaf teachers, with the certification of those already in the profession and the provision of better salaries for teachers throughout the country, we may look forward to a continued advance in this very serious problem of teacher supply. For after all it is the teacher who makes the school and exercises the greatest influence on the growing child.

6. Physical care. The residential schools have a great opportunity in the matter of teaching good health habits, proper rest and play, and should take advantage of this opportunity to turn out pupils who are well and strong in spite of their handicap of deafness.

7. Character training, a properly arranged program for this purpose containing these suggestions:

(a) The continuance of chapel exercises by means of the manual alphabet in the lower classes, and by the manual alphabet and sign language for the older pupils;

(b) The careful selection of supervisors and employees whose contact with the children is close; better salaries should be paid and people of high character for these positions sought;

(c) The employment of deaf persons of high character in such positions as coaches, supervisors and assistants in the household department;

(d) The reading of hero stories, Bible stories and careful selection of the books of the right type, Scout work, and properly conducted sports.

8. Methods employed in our school work. The day has arrived when authorities of every school publicly supported must realize that the child is an individual, that the duty of the school is to give each child the best education possible, and to do this a flexible combination of methods is absolutely necessary.

A challenge to the purposes of those engaged in the education of the deaf is contained in a panel of questions propounded by Principal E. A. Stevenson of the California School in the *California News,* November 25, 1934. The answers to these questions may well compose a professional creed for the teacher of the deaf.

TO THE PROFESSION—TEACHERS AND LEADERS

1. Are you thinking of your opinions of how the deaf child should be taught or of the deaf child himself and his future?
2. Who has to live the deaf child's life—you or the deaf child?
3. Do you really apply pedagogical reasoning to your daily work and problems or do you merely accept what others say and go through a routine of daily procedure of drills and forms?
4. Do you teach from the child's level of personal interests and life's experiences or from what you think he should have? Do you build from without and down or from within and up?
5. Do you merely see the daily problem of the deaf child or do you really endeavor to do some constructive thinking and actually try to do something about it?
6. Is your assignment merely four and a half hours a day or do you realize you have a task and that there are other factors surrounding the problem which demand of you additional time?
7. Do you start your day with a carefully planned outline of teaching, dovetailing the day's effort with that of the past and all leading to a set of objectives and aims or are you guilty of entering your classroom with a hazy and indefinite plan and teaching "things" and putting in time?
8. If you do not really know the deaf child's problem and truly have no carefully planned objectives, is it not better to get out and in so doing be honest with the poor defenseless deaf child?
9. Why not see the end results of a great part of our teaching and efforts by actually meeting and associating with the adult deaf? Do you? If not, do you not think that you will know the needs of the deaf child somewhat better by doing so?
10. Have you heard of the New Deal? Why not start the beginning of a Square Deal for the deaf child who literally and figuratively has no voice in the matter?

The *Pelican,* November 1934, presents data which the late Mr. A. J. Caldwell, superintendent of the Louisiana School, had sought by letter of inquiry from heads of other schools for the deaf. The information, obtained from executives of twelve schools, moves about two major questions, summarized as follows:

1. Present-day Tendencies in the Education of the Deaf; or in other words, what new procedures, studies, vocations or activities have you introduced which seem worth while?
2. What do you find to be the most effective way of motivating children in speech and speech reading; or, in other words, how can you best get children to want to speak and read speech?

Several superintendents wrote only two or three paragraphs, others wrote as many as ten or twelve paragraphs. A summary on all of the papers relating to the first topic reveals the following suggestions, mentioned in the order of their frequency (the figures following each suggestion indicate the number of persons offering the suggestions):

1. A new emphasis on vocational education,—8.
2. More effort given and better methods used in the teaching of reading,—8.
3. More liberal and practical use of hearing aids,—5.
4. Correlating work with that of public schools; modern textbooks and improved curricula,—4.

5. More stress on physical or health education,—3.
6. Higher level of instruction and higher standards of teacher qualifications,—3.
7. Visual education,—3.
8. Prevocational training,—3.
9. Classification and instruction fitted to individual treatment,—3.
10. Scouting activities,—3.
11. More emphasis on hygiene,—2.
12. More emphasis on language instruction,—2.

Following with a number of miscellaneous suggestions, each submitted by at least one writer, Mr. Caldwell continued with the summary.

It will be noted that the two suggestions mentioned by the greatest number of persons have to do with vocational education and reading.

Eight superintendents give it as their opinion that present-day tendencies are toward a greater use of reading as a means of helping the deaf children secure an education. A plea is made for more emphasis on silent reading and for provisions for reading periods and increased interest in library books directed in such way as to develop reading habits.

A plea is made for more pre-vocational training, more recognition by school authorities of vocational work and vocational teachers, a higher standard regarding vocational teachers' qualifications, and an opportunity for girls to receive better, more thorough and more varied vocational training.

The suggestions relating to the second topic indicate very clearly three things:

1. It is agreed by all that little will be accomplished unless and until teachers can get the children to want to speak and read speech.
2. All recognize this to be a very difficult question and admit that not much is known in the way of definite solution.
3. Without exception, the answers indicate that, in order to get children to want to speak and read speech there must be created about them an oral atmosphere.

The following quotations, taken from the papers, will be of interest:

"There has always been the question in my mind whether the very young deaf child gains a great deal by being taught the difficult elements of speech with little vocabulary at his command, and the long and somewhat painful process of learning so many difficult positions before using them to any large extent."

"Lessons in speech-reading should be developed in advance for individual children, and while the teacher is developing the speech of one or more the rest could form in pairs; one reading material for another to lip-read and then have them change about. This will do a great deal toward improving their lip-reading; in fact, more than watching the teacher's lips all the time. In fact, the teacher should not be a talking teacher. The responsibility should be placed upon the pupils. In this way they will gradually come to want to speak."

"Hearing people are most interested in deaf people who can speak well enough to be understood and in seeking employment speech is invaluable to the deaf person. Every deaf child is entitled to as much and as good speech as possible as the God-given right to be as nearly normal as possible."

"To get these results pupils must live in an oral atmosphere."

"We find that when deaf children acquire speech enough to act as

a vehicle of communication, they will try harder and more constantly than before they knew what it was all about."

"The method which we have employed to create a desire on the part of the children to speak better and read lips better might be called assembly contests. We take about four classes to our chapel. Each class puts on a speech demonstration, and competes to see which can read the lips best. Little prizes which cost practically nothing have created a keen interest in both the speech work and in the lip-reading. Our teacher sits in the back of the auditorium and listens for speech while the other pupils are trying to read the lips of the pupils who are performing. When one class has given a speech demonstration, another class goes to the platform."

"The tendency in my opinion is for higher standards for teachers, not only in the high school department, but also in the primary and intermediate departments of the schools. For after all, the work accomplished by the school is a product of the teaching force and the better the teacher, the better the work accomplished."

"We are groping for more ideas on this subject. May we have yours."

"After all is said and done, it is the teacher who can inspire her children to have the desire for speech and speech-reading that makes the work of the class in this line most effective. Some teachers have that gift and some do not."

"In my opinion, the best way to get deaf children to want to speak and read the lips is to create about them an oral atmosphere that will make them feel that there is a demand for speech and lip-reading and that it has a consequent value. This is an ideal condition that few of our schools, especially state schools with limited means and consequent large classes, are able to attain."

"I have an Honor Roll which I conduct every Tuesday morning during the school year, at which time I give the children an oral talk of about twenty minutes in length upon some interesting topic, after which I congratulate the children and shake the hand of each one as they walk out of the assembly hall."

Again the important question, Do our schools set the curriculum to meet the needs of only a small group of pupils? This question Mr. Byron B. Burnes considers in the *South Dakota Advocate,* January 1935, with the following comment:

The present aim of many schools for the deaf, and of most other schools, is to send as many of their graduates as possible to college. A school which has great success in equipping its pupils for college is looked upon as a good school.

In the case of the deaf, many of our schools arrange their courses so as to fulfill the entrance requirements of Gallaudet College, and justly point with pride to the achievements of some bright pupil who goes through college with distinction and makes a name for himself afterwards. He is held up before young pupils as a shining example of perseverance and industry. In fact, he is an exceptional person, whose accomplishments the great majority can not hope to attain. The majority never get so far along as entering college.

The present system pushes all pupils along a course leading to the college examinations, but among the majority are pupils who barely "get by," or fail, and others who have not the financial backing for

a college career. Some of them drop out of school before they graduate; others receive a diploma of doubtful quality; and still others receive a "certificate of merit." They return to the homes whence they came and adopt the habits of their associates.

In carrying such pupils along over a course that leads on to higher education and is planned for the more capable minority, giving them assignments which they can never complete, or will never use in the pursuit of higher education, are the schools giving them the best possible equipment for the situations to which they must adjust themselves in life? It would seem the more logical procedure to teach such pupils the things they can do, rather than to force them along, toiling at things they can not do.

Since these pupils compose the majority, their problem is the most vital phase of educational efforts.

As a veteran teacher sees it, the immediate problem of our schools for the deaf is a more adequate provision for the educational needs of the ungifted majority, not of the gifted few. This is the view expressed by Dr. J. L. Smith, principal in the Minnesota School, in the *Companion*, January 17, 1935.

The experience of half a century as an instructor of the deaf has convinced the writer that no single method can adequately educate all deaf children. There is a wide range of mental capacity and educational receptivity among deaf children, demanding flexibility of method in order to achieve the best results in all cases.

Leading schools for the deaf are vying with one another to raise their educational standards to a level comparable with that of the public high schools. Some schools have already done so and others are on the way. This is gratifying to our educational pride, but it intensifies the problem of what can be done for the many deaf children who will always be unable to meet the demands of the higher standard.

According to the ANNALS for January, 1934, the total enrollment of the Minnesota School for the Deaf since its establishment in 1863 is 2,018. Of these about 475 have completed the prescribed course of study and have received certificates of graduation. This is a percentage of a little more than 23. If we omit from the total enrollment the pupils now at school, the percentage of graduation will be even less. This percentage may be higher or lower in other schools, depending upon the requirements for graduation and other circumstances. To be conservative, let us assume that graduation is possible for 30 per cent. That leaves 70 per cent who must fall by the wayside if they endeavor to negotiate the prescribed course of study. The favored few, the mentally gifted, are the least in need of help. Once started, they can go forward largely on their own momentum. It is the ungifted many that are most in need of the best that the schools can give them.

It is our conviction that the most important, the most humanitarian, work of the schools is toward the amelioration of the lot of these ungifted ones. The obvious course to pursue is to adapt methods and simplify requirements to fit more nearly the lesser capabilities. Omit the sciences and higher mathematics and devote the best efforts toward giving the pupils,—1. The best understanding and use of the English language within their capacity, 2. The ability to read ordinary literature understandingly, and 3. A practical vocational training.

A "Better Language Week," to arouse in pupils a vigorous language consciousness, is the device suggested by Miss Mildred A. Groht, head teacher in language in the Lexington School. As described in the *Lexington Leader* for January 15, 1935, the plan is as follows:

As a means of adding zest and increased interest in the use of written and spoken English, and in an effort to make each child conscious of his own use of language in order that he might check up on his weaknesses and go forward in his work, the week of January 14 was set apart as "Better Language Week" and will be appropriately observed.

For a week prior to this observance, the pupils in each class discussed fully the aims and possibilities of achievement in the use of language, how these aims might best be furthered, and what results could reasonably be expected. The children themselves studied their weaknesses and segregated those errors which occurred through carelessness or lack of thought rather than through lack of understanding or knowledge. Ways and means of eliminating these careless mistakes were considered. The boys and girls became "language conscious" without any apparent effort to do so.

Posters were made depicting ideas and ideals in mastering English and were used to aid the children in improving their use of it. Many of these posters showed in a pictorial and graphic manner the fundamental principles of our language, while others pictured allegorically what best to do with errors. Still others illustrated benefits derived from a correct use of English.

Simple skits and stunts were worked out along similar lines, always with the idea of stressing the value of good, clear language. These skits and stunts proved most illuminating as well as highly entertaining to the children and will serve as a basis for an assembly program.

The effort put forth by both student body and faculty brought out results well worth the expenditure of time, energy and thought. To see real value in the use of correct English and hence try to attain proficiency in the subject is the first great step forward in acquiring ease and facility in the art of expressing thoughts and ideas by means of language.

Dr. J. L. Smith, in a paper read at a meeting of the Teachers' Association of the Minnesota School and reported in the *Companion*, April 25, 1935, discusses the subject of Language Teaching. After considering the sequence of action writing, item writing, picture description, story writing, composition writing and finally essay writing as language exercises, Dr. Smith refers to the value of incorporation as language work. In the discussion he cautions against certain aspects of this method.

The value of incorporation as a language exercise depends upon the way in which it is used.

When I first began to teach, I used incorporation to a great extent. I picked out new and difficult words from the textbooks, wrote them

on the blackboard with definitions, had the pupils copy them into notebooks, and then assigned ten of them for incorporation during evening study hour. Many of the resultant sentences were fearfully and wonderfully made. After a year or two of this work, it dawned upon me that I was on the wrong track. New and difficult words convey no clear idea to the mind of the deaf child. Hence, requiring pupils to construct sentences from them is a forced and unnatural method. It is my conviction that taking unfamiliar words from textbooks and requiring the pupils to incorporate them is not a useful exercise but may even be harmful. But defining such words and having them copied into notebooks is helpful before the pupils are able to use the dictionary. By using the new Thorndike dictionary we may be able to lead the pupils to use the dictionary sooner than they do now. When words are defined by the teacher, care must be taken that the definitions are correct and worded rightly, otherwise one may have the dilemma of the teacher who defined "extinguished" as "put out," with the result that a pupil brought him the sentence, "My mother extinguished the cat."

Incorporation should be limited to known words and phrases. Prepositional phrases and adverbial phrases of time give good practice in incorporation. But nothing is of greater benefit than verb incorporation. The verb, with its varying moods and tenses, is the most difficult part of language to master. Ask the pupils to incorporate different forms of a well-known verb, for instance, *make, makes, made, has made, is made, are made, was made, will make, will be made, can make.* Care should be taken that the pupils use the correct time modifier with each form.

Further warning is given by Dr. Smith on the proper use of textbooks.

Textbooks are a necessary evil. Necessary because they contain certain facts that educated men and women are supposed to know. Evil to us because the textbooks available for our use are written for hearing children with an extensive understanding of language. Our primary pupils make rapid progress in language up to the textbook stage. Then the transition from the easy narrative style of the first years to the heavy didactic style of the textbook is too abrupt, there is too wide a gap between them; hence the floundering of the pupils in a maze of words and the despair of the teacher. What can be done? Remember that textbooks are studied for the information they contain, not for language. Bring out the important facts of each chapter and use them as the basis for review. Do not waste time unduly in trying to explain the language, which is not the language of common folks.

Some philosopher once remarked that "the best teacher knows what *not* to teach as well as what to teach."

Miss Inez M. Serumgard of the North Dakota School explains in the *North Dakota Banner,* January 1935, how it is possible with the aid of the outline procedure to build coherent language work—and the habit of clear thinking, as well—with deaf pupils.

I find as I am sure other teachers do that deaf boys and girls quite often know a great deal more about a subject than they are able to write. They know many interesting facts about some given topic but often do not realize how much they really know. I ask my pupils to tell me all they can about "The Work of Rivers" and my composi-

tions will be very inadequate and inaccurate accounts of miscellaneous matter. It may be lack of adequate language to express their thoughts or the inability to differentiate between relevant and irrelevant ideas or natural inertia but whatever the cause the problem is ever present to the deaf teacher—how can I get coherent, proportioned essays built on clear-cut, straightforward, simple language that will tell me something of what the child has learned about this subject? I find Physical Geography a very fine medium for teaching the child the intricate art of essay writing. The subject itself is almost outlined for them and after some study of the various points to be brought out they take their books and outline sometimes a paragraph or two and sometimes the entire chapter. Sometimes we work the outline out together and sometimes they do it alone. With a workable outline in front of him a child thinks more coherently. He knows that one idea follows another and his language simply follows naturally. He discovers as I do later that he knows many interesting facts which he has been able to retell in reasonably good language. The outline habit grows and anyone who knows enough to pick out the main points to be mastered in a lesson will never be at the foot of his class.

Dr. Harry E. Amoss, acting superintendent of the Ontario School, tells, in the December 1, 1934, number of the *Canadian*, of certain departures from the customary "ritual" in the teaching of arithmetic, seeking the more practical applications of that subject. The seven major points of the new program, outlined in the following selection, may appeal to teachers of arithmetic in other schools.

In the reorganization of the Ontario School for the Deaf, the following readjustments have been or are being made in the teaching of arithmetic:

1. Pupils are no longer graded according to their ability to perform the mechanical operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, etc., but rather according to their ability to think out solutions of problem situations. In this connection a number of adolescent pupils, who on account of late entry or because of slowness in the manipulation of mere mechanical operations were being held up in junior grades, received promotion to the senior school and were introduced to problem situations correlative with their adolescent interests. For example, one group from an intermediate grade, who had been struggling with long, barren questions in addition and subtraction and who had barely begun the multiplication table, were on promotion to the senior school immediately introduced to "trade discount." During one lesson period, they not only became familiar with the terms discount and per cent, but at the end of 45 minutes every member of the class was able to solve such a problem as computing the sale price of a pair of shoes marked $7.00 when a discount of 20 per cent was given. Simple addition and subtraction operations were largely used, with here and there a transfer to multiplication by certain pupils who had grasped the significance of that shortening operation. And did they like it? In the ordinary course of events, a number from this group would have quitted school without even an acquaintanceship with the problems of everyday commercial arithmetic.

2. The hard and fast ritual of procedure which restricted the teaching of certain thought processes to those who had acquired dexterity in certain mechanical operations has been abolished even in the regular

grades. Necessarily pupils in these grades are somewhat older and have attained higher mental ages and more mature lines of interest than pupils in corresponding public and separate school grades. For example, when pupils have acquired a moderate degree of skill in adding, they are immediately introduced to elementary problems dealing with bills and accounts, weights and measures, etc., without having their thinking development along these lines held up until they have mastered the multiplication table.

3. Even in the higher grades, where all the mechanical operations have been more or less mastered, the study of each new topic is begun as an adding, subtracting or even counting procedure to be later speeded up through the introduction of multiplication, division, fractions, etc. Non-hearing pupils think much more largely in terms of visual imagery than in terms of abstract verbal processes, and the above method has been adopted in order that the student may more vividly apprehend the conditions of the problem and the means to be employed in its solution. Thus, in finding the interest on $6.00 for a year at five per cent per annum, the pupil would add six fives indicating payment by the borrower of a nickel's rent on each dollar loaned. Pupils who comprehend the significance of multiplication, will of their own accord adjust that speedier process as soon as they comprehend the conditions involved in such a problem and will shift to fractional solutions as the questions become more complex.

4. The sanctity of fixed solutions has been quite abolished and the pupils accorded full liberty of thought. Any method of arriving at the correct answer is accepted as satisfactory. For example, in the discount problem mentioned in (1) several solutions were obtained:

80 & 80 & 80 & 80 & 80 & 80 & 80
80 x 7
700 — 20 — 20 — 20 — 20 — 20 — 20 — 20
700 — 140

A new thrill has been introduced into arithmetic. The subject has become a thought adventure. Pupils no longer trail along a dusty beaten path in a chain gang, but are turned loose to explore the countryside. Happy the fellow who finds a way through the wood. Happier still he who discovers a shorter cut.

5. Training in the mechanical operations has been by no means neglected, but attempt is being made to treat these as skills to be acquired rather than thoughts to be considered. It would seem essential that any machinery installed in the minds of non-hearing pupils should be of a type as simple and effective as possible. For this reason, the subtraction and division tables have been abolished and the multiplication tables greatly simplified.

Addition is taught as a series of "add up" facts thus:

2	4	6	8	5	
1	2	3	4	2	etc.
1	2	3	4	3	

line and answer being placed above.

The term subtraction is not employed, the corresponding process being called "add to" in contradistinction with "add up." The "fact story" employed is identical with that used in "add up" tables, for example "four and five are nine," only in the "add to" process the

$$\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ 5 \\ \hline 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

fact is written thus —, the two lines below the question serving to

distinguish it from a multiplication problem with its single base line or an add up problem with its single top line.

The facts of the multiplication tables are taught as separate entities in two series and in the following order.

(a)

5 3 5 5 2 3 4 2 4 2 7 2 9 3 6 3 8 4
2 5 4 5 2 3 4 3 2 6 2 8 2 4 3 7 3 6

(b)

5 7 5 9 6 7 8 9 3 4 8 4 6 8 6 7 9 8
6 5 8 5 2 7 8 9 9 8 4 9 7 6 9 8 7 9

The reverse arrangement of each fact is taught at the same time, thus:

3	4
4	3
12	12

Series A and series B are taught in different grades, each being richly applied to problem situations.

From the preceding sections, it will of course be evident that multiplication facts are taught not as operations in themselves, but as more speedy "add up" processes just as division is taught as a more speedy "add to" process. The statement of a division situation is identical with that of the corresponding multiplication fact, thus 3 $\overline{)12}$—3 times 4 is 12.

6. Likewise the idea of teaching the philosophy of mathematics to children of tender years has been abolished. While, as a result, little boys and girls are unable to repeat the catechism of digits, units, tens, etc., they perform the actual operations correctly and effectively. For example, many teachers in changing to the additive method of subtraction, seem to suffer under compulsion to think subtraction even while they talk addition, with the result that the simple operation becomes clogged with a multitude of verbal explanations. With the elimination of the term "subtraction" and the substitution of the term "add to" the process remains a simple additive operation. Thus a boy needs 51 cents to buy a toy pistol; he earns 39 cents cleaning walks; how much more must he earn before he has enough money to make the purchase?

51 9 and 2 are 11—one to carry.
39 4 and 1 are 5

7. Seat work and home work, consisting of questions involving mere mechanical operations, have been done away with. Habits are perfected by intensive five minute drills per day, the remainder of the arithmetic period being devoted to thought training through the solution of practical problems. The following speed sheets have been printed for drill purposes (1) Add up facts and columns to 9; (2) The remaining add up facts and short columns; (3) Add up columns for advanced pupils; (4) Add to drills; (5) Multiplication facts and exercises to 25; (6) The remaining multiplication facts and exercises; (7) Division exercises; (8) Fraction exercises. It may be here noted that the O. S. D. is prepared to supply teachers with such speed drill sheets at a cost of 25 cents per set of fifty, post paid, $2.00 for the eight sets of 50 or 40 cents for eight sets of ten.

That the Activity Program finds ready acceptance in the Indiana School is made clear by Mr. John E. Travis in an editorial in the *Silent Hoosier,* April 26, 1935. The account

tells of such features as a circus, an Indian village, an airport, the postal service, a barn and silo, Robinson Crusoe's island, and a class "ditto-machine" newspaper. The variety of experience thus brought into play is illustrated by the description of one of these projects, a "grocery store."

> One class worked on a grocery store project and they did so well with it that the thing has been given a separate room where all the grades may use it. It is rigged up with shelves and counters, scales and money drawer, and even a "telephone" for receiving orders. The shelves are not empty, either. They are filled full of canned and bottled goods (apparently) and the counters have the appearance of a regular store. The word "apparently," above, is in parenthesis because the goods are not there, but the containers are, just as natural as in any store. Those were obtained from packing and canning companies all over the country by the simple process of writing for them. Each child of the class wrote to some company telling them what they were doing and asking for samples and the response was ready and generous. Two boys of the class made the shelving and did the other constructive work. The metal working shops at Technical High School furnished the money, metal disks of the different sizes of coins with denominations stamped on them. It is all there, to buy, to make change, to receive orders over the phone and send an itemized statement with goods, and it was all accomplished with no more outlay of money than the cost of postage on the letters sent.

The value of this type of classroom activity is summed up by Mr. Travis in these words:

> All these projects have kept them interested and alert. They afford an excellent opportunity to increase their vocabulary, apply their arithmetic, interest them in geography, get more definite ideas of business dealings and commercial activities, and above all, afford the teachers an excellent medium for teaching language.

We turn now to the vocational side of the curriculum. Mr. G. D. Coats of the Washington School, in a discussion in the *Washingtonian*, November 1934, finds a flaw in the vocational program of schools for the deaf in the tendency to shorten the hours of instruction available for vocational classes, and he contends a readjustment in this respect will effect better results. His version of the problem is as follows:

> One important aspect of vocational education of the deaf seems to be overlooked in the programs put forward these days for a renaissance of shop training. We hear much of the need of modernizing industrial buildings and equipment. We are told we should have better trained and better paid vocational teachers. But strangely little is said about increasing the pupils' hours in the industrial department.
>
> Reference is often made to the old time superiority of shop training in schools for the deaf when such training in the public schools was unheard of, compared to our present state when our graduates are at a disadvantage in competing with the better trained products of the public and vocational schools. It is undoubtedly true that our present

inferiority in industrial education is due to the fact that we failed to keep up with the schools for the hearing in the matter of equipment and trained personnel. But this is an incomplete diagnosis of our retrogression. We think a large part of the blame is attributable to reduced shop-time schedules.

A comparison of the hours formerly devoted to shop work with the prevailing schedules cannot but be edifying. In the old days pupils put in three or four hours a day in the industrial department, six days a week for a maximum of 24 hours a week. Assuming the usual 38-week school year and a ten-year period of shop training, the pupils formerly received the equivalent of over four years apprenticeship, figured in eight-hour working days. Our present shop schedules allow two hours a day, four or five days a week. Some schools require the pupils to give two hours a week to laundry or other non-vocational work. Thus our pupils now receive eight or ten hours a week, compared to 24 formerly given to industrial training. But even this greatly reduced shop-time allotment is often on paper only.

The hours in the academic department are properly regarded as inviolate. But that is not always the case in the industrial department. Pupils and teachers are often called upon to make repairs, perform chores, or answer any emergency call for "man-power" around the school. Under these conditions, a conservative estimate would place the actual time devoted to vocational education for the assumed ten-year period at less than a year. Even under ideal conditions, our pupils now get less than half as much time for shop work as formerly.

This raises the pertinent question: How can we expect, even with the best of facilities and technique, to train our pupils to compete for a livelihood with the hearing products of present-day vocational education in half the time formerly required to train the deaf for employment where there was little or no competition?

Unquestionably, our present shop schedules allow too little time for the deaf to acquire the means of a livelihood. There should be a more favorable adjustment of hours. With this change made, better facilities and shop personnel should follow as a natural consequence. Then the long looked for renaissance in vocational education for the deaf will become reality.

Mr. John E. Travis, after 27 years as a teacher of printing in the Indiana School and as one always actively promoting progressive interest in vocational training, concludes that the vital point in any school vocational training program is the need of a vocational principal for the department with special preparation for that type of work. His reasons are given in this argument in the *Silent Hoosier* for May 24, 1935:

As to vocational training, there will be no real vocational school in any school, residential or day-school, without a principal of the vocational department whose experience and training have been along vocational lines. It can not be organized or conducted successfully by the principal of the academic department with no experience or training in vocational work, and with no time to devote to it, even if he had the experience and training. The work is different, the disciplinary measures that fit the case are different, the reactions of the boys to the requirements of the two departments are not at all similar and the difficulties that arise and the questions that come up can not

be met and solved by the same rules and regulations that apply in the schoolrooms of the academic department.

An instructive study of the vocational problem was that made for the Minnesota School by a member of its staff, Mr. Carl F. Smith, early in the year 1935. The results were published in the *Companion,* April 11, 1935, giving detailed analysis of the information received. The conclusions drawn from the study are thus brought together by Superintendent L. M. Elstad:

This survey is something that has been in our minds for a long time. It became an actuality at this time because Mr. Carl F. Smith of our staff took the initiative and shouldered the work that is always connected with such an undertaking. It is my feeling that it has been very much worth while. Several conclusions can be drawn from a study of this survey.

We now have in our records the correct addresses of over 1,000 of our former pupils. We have definite information regarding 531 of these pupils. It is now our plan to have individual files for each of these and each year send a card to all so as to secure additional information as to changes in the status of each individual. It will be possible in this way for us to have accurate statistical information at all times. We shall be keeping in contact with all former pupils and they will feel that we are interested in them.

We have often wondered if the trades taught our children in school are followed to any great extent after school days are over. The survey has shown us that of those who answered of the boys, forty per cent have followed the trade learned in school at one time or another after leaving school. Those who are following these trades at the present time number only eighteen per cent. These percentages may lead one to conclude that the trade learned in school has not been of much use to the child. That, however, is not the case. Forty per cent is a good percentage and even if all did not stay with that trade they did have something to do when they started out in life. It can readily be seen that if agriculture had been taught all along the percentage would be much higher.

It is interesting to note that of the girls of the school who have gone out in life and who replied to the questionnaire most are housewives. This goes to show that our chief duty to our girls is to train them to be good homemakers.

We have known that in normal times 95 per cent of our former pupils have been self supporting. The survey shows that even now during these depression years 61 per cent of the men are employed and 75 per cent of the women counting housewives are employed.

It has always been our desire to know, from those who have tried life after leaving our school, what trades are the best to teach in school. The survey mentions many. It is interesting to note that the two trades we are asking the legislature to give us funds for are in the lead. These are farming and shoemaking. It is also pleasing to note that so many suggested a course of power-machine operation for girls. We hope in the not too distant future this can also become a part of our course. A machine shop was suggested by a large number. Auto repairing was also mentioned frequently. These two could very well be combined and we shall consider such a course.

It was of course interesting to find out what subjects our former students felt had been the most helpful to them in their lives after school. As we had anticipated, English and Arithmetic led all the rest. This just goes to prove we must continue to lay emphasis on these subjects.

We were very much interested in the question of summer school. This is because we have a $900,000 plant which is more or less idle during the summer months. It would seem an economical move to put the plant to work during that time. It was thought that those students who had gone out in the world would know whether it would benefit them and therefore the question was placed in the questionnaire. As will be noticed a large percentage of those who answered this question felt that such a school was necessary. Of those who favored the plan of having a summer school, the majority favored having it at the Minnesota School for the Deaf. This matter will be taken up with the Board of Control in the near future. We here at the school feel it is something that should be seriously considered. Just how such a summer school can be operated to the best advantage must be considered. The matter of the expense must also be considered. The State School for the Blind here in Faribault conducts such a school. It should be just as valuable to the deaf.

In line with this question we were interested in finding out what trades should be taught in such a summer course. Printing and farming had the largest number of supporters. We do not think, however, that it would be difficult to arrange a profitable course. We would have to start out very modestly and develop the course as time went on.

We feel we have gained much from the answers to these questionnaires. We wish to thank all those who co-operated with us in preparing them and sending them out and all those who took time to answer them and return them to us. Undoubtedly our best boosters are our former students. They are now out in the world and know what is necessary in order to get along in life. We asked them to give us the benefit of this knowledge and we feel the questionnaire has fulfilled this desire for information on our part. I hope that the Minnesota School for the Deaf can more and more serve not only those children who are in school at present but those who have been in school and who are out making their own livelihood. Certainly the State School for the Deaf should be the headquarters for all matters pertaining to the deaf in the state. Just as the parents keep a continued interest in their children, the State School for the Deaf should continue its interest in its graduates and former pupils.

In a Survey of the Vocational Work of the Deaf of West Virginia reported in the *West Virginia Tablet,* May 1935, Mr. Chetwynd H. McAlister, principal of the vocational department of that school, gives results of another study, made during the period November 1934 to April 1935, of vocational data obtained from former pupils as far back as 1883 and as recent as the graduates of 1934. According to this study,

The returns show 73.7 per cent are employed and none of these are employed on relief funds. It was also noted that the men are 87.3 per cent employed while the women are 47.3 per cent employed.

Another interesting item is that only 57.4 per cent of the men are following the trade for which they were trained; the rest branching

off into other lines of work listed in the chart. Agriculture, for which they received no training, ranked first in "other trades followed," next being cleaning and pressing.

In the suggested trades it is surprising to note that agriculture ranks first, with cleaning and pressing and barbering ranking second and third.

Many of the deaf gave the following reasons for suggesting agriculture: "Each deaf person working for someone or running a small business should have a plot of ground on which he could live and raise most of his food, and it would afford a place to work when work shuts down or business is slack."

In reply to the question of "How has the trade you studied in school helped you in making a living?" I received many and varied answers. Some I will quote:

"None—Considered my time was wasted."

"Training was invaluable; without it I could not have made a living."

"Has helped me to keep my buildings in repair."

"Has enabled me to advance faster with my company than an apprentice could have done."

"Has helped to establish a business of my own, but my work should have been supplemented with more business training."

This survey is not so complete as we would like to have it, but it does give us a cross section of the vocational life of the West Virginia adult deaf.

In a report in the *Fanwood Journal,* April 1935, the placement officer serving the three major residential schools in New York City speaks frankly of the causes of failure of deaf workers. A number of cases are cited in which young deaf persons were quite competent for their work yet failed to hold their places because of unsatisfactory attitudes. The result is that employers become prejudiced against considering other deaf persons as workers. The question of instilling habits of loyalty and dependability thus becomes more than an academic problem in the classroom; it is an absolute necessity. The report summarizes as follows:

While we know that some employers discriminate against the deaf, it is also true that many employers are willing to employ deaf workers, even though they have little return in loyalty or dependability. Such employers offer exuses for them as a fond parent might do. We find ourselves asking: Why should they? After all, business *is* business. The deaf *can* do the work if they will and it is a pretty poor tribute to any group of able people to be excused all through their lives because they are deaf. It is also true that some employers excuse them because they are deaf, but pay them less. This is another poor commentary on a group who could and might compete on a regular basis with hearing workers as far as actual performance is concerned if attitudes were comparable.

In our talks with employers we do not ask them to excuse the deaf from doing a normal job. We, on the other hand, take the attitude that our workers, properly placed, can and should produce as good work as any hearing worker. We ask the employer to be a little more

tolerant with new deaf worker in the very beginning, so that he may be given a full chance to definitely understand the work to be done. After this consideration on the part of the employer, *we feel the responsibility of keeping the job remains with the worker.*

Another side of the picture is given in an address on Co-operation by Miss Elizabeth Peet, of the faculty of Gallaudet College, at the New Jersey School, May 30, 1934, and reported in the *Jersey School News* for October 1934. There is at present much sentiment for greater emphasis upon character and social training. That such sentiment is well founded may be judged from this part of Miss Peet's address:

This ideal of co-operation is of particular importance to the deaf. The general public is still ignorant of the splendid qualities and achievements of the deaf, and for that reason is loath to employ them. There are some employers, however, who have tried deaf persons. The Hispanic Museum, in New York, is an example of this. Beginning years ago, with one employee, there are now twenty deaf members on the staff.

In Virginia there is a print shop where two young deaf men, former students at Gallaudet College, have been employed for several years. They have been so successful in their work that their "boss" declares if they should ever leave him, he would employ only deaf men in their place. But the thing that has impressed us most is that these young men have become a part, and an important part, in the life of the community. They went there first as strangers, to earn their living but now they are the most popular young men in town. They have made friends with other young people, and have taught them to spell on their fingers. They play on the town teams in all sports, they dance well, and their manners are so agreeable that at all gatherings of the young people, these two boys are welcome guests. They are not set apart in a little world of their own, but by their co-operation both in industry and social affairs they have made their own place in the community. They are living in the best sense of the word. It seems to me that all of us can profit by their example.

The line of attack so far as the school is concerned is suggested in a statement on the same subject in the Minnesota *Companion,* May 23, 1935.

We think that special attention may well be given to training the boys and girls in what we call "Vocational Ethics," comprising those qualities which, in addition to manual skill, recommend a worker to his employer. Among these are promptness, close application to the job in hand, cheerful and ready manner of taking orders, willingness to receive criticism of work, and courtesy to supervisors and fellow workers. A well-trained hand, reinforced by qualities such as these, will go far to insure the retention of a job, once obtained.

A charge by a deaf writer that frequently failure of the deaf person in the world of industry is laid unjustly to "discrimination against the deaf" when instead the fault should

be attributed to the educational system preparing the individual is answered by Mr. Tom L. Anderson in the *Iowa Hawkeye,* March 1935, with the claim that the burden properly rests cojointly with every agency dealing with the deaf.

I think that the general run of the pupils in a large school for the deaf exhibits about as high an average of character training as those of any large public school for the hearing. Anyhow, we manage to keep them out of the jails, to a larger extent, than other public schools. That we do not "restore them to society" 100 per cent, grieves us as much as it may grieve some of our critics. However, it does not necessarily follow that we are encouraging a belief in any such demoralizing propaganda as that charged against us in the article quoted. The facts are that the schools cannot do the entire job unaided; that there is great need of co-operation among school, parents, religious and fraternal organizations, and the adult deaf; and that this co-operation is not necessarily limited to vague criticism of the schools.

The need for a field agent working from the state school as a base, and so providing the necessary contacts with trade opportunities for competent graduates, is pointed out in this statement in the *Frat,* November 1934, by Mr. A. L. Roberts, president of the National Fraternal Society for the Deaf.

It is becoming more and more apparent that to secure adequate employment for the deaf in these times of keen competition, two things are of paramount importance.

First, our schools for the deaf must improve trades teaching and keep abreast of the times, both in the quality of instruction and in shop equipment.

Second, every state school should have a field agent or placement officer, to interview employers and place the deaf in industrial plants. Minnesota and North Carolina have Labor Bureaus for the deaf, which we believe are doing good work and which should be maintained, since they are now well established. But we believe that field agents or placement officers operating directly from state schools, as in California, can be of greater service for the outlay involved; first, in locating new pupils for such schools, and second, in securing employment for products of these schools and other deaf residents of the state. Such agents would be in close touch with the work being done by the schools, and their observations and experience in the industrial field would be of great value in guiding the industrial teaching trend in their respective schools. Industrial conditions vary in each state, and this in some measure should be the deciding factor in the trades taught in each school.

It is a foregone conclusion that an employer knowing little or nothing of the deaf, when confronted with the decision to hire a hearing or a deaf man, will hire the hearing man. We must first cultivate the latent abilities of our pupils in our school shops, enabling them to do their particular work well, if not better than their competitors; and then we must "sell" this ability to employers. The more aggressive and able of the deaf can and do "sell" their ability to employers, but the great majority find it a difficult task in these times. In the

old days, a man could quit one job and get another within a day or two, but that time is gone. There is now too much competition for jobs, and the deaf man is at a greater disadvantage than ever before. This situation calls for new and improved instruction in trades teaching in our schools, and more aggressive measures outside to place the deaf in gainful employment.

We urge every state school head in the country to petition the legislature for funds to place on the staff a capable field agent. The cost will be repaid many times over in the securing of new pupils to be trained, and in the making of these pupils into self-supporting and self-respecting citizens.

One view of the limitations of school field agents is contained in an article in the December 1934 number of the *Pennsylvania Society News,* bi-monthly journal of the Pennsylvania Society for the Advancement of the Deaf, by Rev. Henry J. Pulver. The scope of interest expected of such officers and the extent of territory to cover make it impossible to accomplish much of value. The situation is thus described in the first part of the article:

Few people who have not borne the brunt of the battle can realize what a tremendous amount of detail is involved in sociological work. It is an overwhelming task for a person unaided to do such work in one large city, let alone in a whole state. It requires an intimate knowledge of many complicated subjects, both social and economic, a thorough acquaintance with hundreds of individuals and their capacities, personal relations with welfare agencies and scores of employers, detailed information concerning industrial operations, familiarity with various trades, connections with publicity mediums, and so on. It would be absurd to expect one individual to master all these details and cover a whole state. The butter would be too thin. Even half a dozen workers would find the going hard under such conditions. Moreover, there is the loss of time involved in traveling, amounting to about 50 per cent. Take the fact that the individual's time is cut in half before he starts, and add to this his duties as a school official—the educating of parents, finding deaf children of school age and having them enrolled at the school for the deaf, and it will be seen that the job would be too much for anyone.

Then, there is the matter of allegiance. The ancient principle that no man can serve two masters operates here. The field agent cannot conceivably serve both the school and the adult deaf with equal loyalty and efficiency, for he will not have either the time or the enthusiasm to serve both. As an officer appointed by and responsible to the school, his first thought will be to serve the school, by interviewing parents, advising them as to the best method for training their children of pre-school age, and sending new pupils to the school. If he helps the adult deaf by aiding them secure work, or otherwise, it will be done merely as a side line, for he will have neither the time nor the energy to put his heart into it. Ergo, if the chief interest is in aiding the adult deaf, then he will do his work for the school as a side line. In either case, one side will be ill-served. There can be no divided allegiance in the business.

The proper vocation of a field agent is to serve as a school official and devote his energies wholly to the main business of a school, which is education. In this work he will find full scope for all his energies

and will have no time for any other work. Considering the ignorance of parents regarding the education of the deaf and the fact that there are many underprivileged deaf children to whom the blessings of education should be given, it is to be hoped that every school may have the helpful services of a field agent. But his work should be primarily and wholly educational, and it would be a disservice to the school and the adult deaf alike to expect him to serve as an employment bureau or placement officer.

A practical remedy, according to the discussion, is suggested by an industrial relations set-up for the deaf, preferably as an agency of the state government.

We believe as we have from the first that the only sensible solution for the economic problems of the adult deaf lies in the creation of industrial relations agencies for them under the various state governments. These may be either in the form of separate Labor Bureaus for the Deaf or special departments in existing labor departments of the individual states. The precise form is immaterial. But these special agencies for helping the deaf make contacts with employers and receive placement opportunities in the various industries. They should utilize the prestige of existing labor agencies and should operate as units of these existing labor set-ups. And they should proceed not under the assumption that the deaf worker is below par and needs special coddling, but that in nearly all kinds of work he is as efficient and skilled as the hearing worker, and employers should be convinced of this fact by suitable publicity. What the deaf need most is not merely jobs but a better understanding on the part of employers. Hence, the chief work of the special section for the deaf in the Labor Department set-up should be to teach a right understanding of the deaf man as a citizen and workman. We do not want the deaf to be employed as a charitable proposition or out of pity, but for their skill, reliability and efficiency. When employers finally understand the fact that the deaf are to be regarded as normal workers in every respect save the lack of hearing, the battle will be won.

There is in the Pennsylvania Department of Labor a special section for the handicapped—people with poor vision, below par mentally, minus arms or legs, paralyzed, etc. These unfortunates are so severely handicapped that employers will take them on only out of pity and at a very low wage rate. It is unfortunate that the deaf have hitherto been indiscriminately grouped with these people and their affairs handled through the same office. This, instead of helping the deaf, has done them positive injury and has prejudiced employers. This section is moreover in the hands of persons whose main object is to place handicapped hearing people, and the problems of the deaf do not enter into their plans. The various regional officers, while professing to understand the deaf, actually know nothing about them, and do not want to learn. They resent suggestions offered by teachers, clergymen and others who thoroughly understand the deaf, state bluntly that they are fully competent to handle the situation, and do not need outside help. The Philadelphia office has even refused the services, offered gratis, of a competent person who could interview deaf applicants on certain days of the week. And yet to our knowledge not a single deaf person has received work through these labor agents, so-called.

The "way out" lies in the creation of a separate agency in the labor department to handle the peculiar problems of the deaf workman. This may be accomplished by agreement with the state officials,

or it may be brought about by legislative enactment. However it is to be accomplished, it should be done without more ado, that the future may be safeguarded. And it is up to all of us to put our shoulder to the wheel and push it.

The thought raised by Rev. Mr. Pulver's remarks is closely related to another question, namely, "Who Are the Deaf?" In a letter to the editor of the *N.A.D. Bulletin,* February 1935, Mr. Tom L. Anderson of the Iowa School makes the following proposal to help answer the question:

One of the first projects being urged upon the American deaf by the NADministration is to secure state labor bureaus for the deaf. In Iowa we are working upon such a project, are meeting with encouragement from officials and legislators approached. These asked a perfectly natural question: "How many deaf people are there in Iowa?" We blush, for we cannot tell them. We do not know, and the only way we can guess is to invoke the old rule for finding the deaf-mute population on the basis of 1 out of 1500 of the general population. This gives us about 1700 deaf-mutes in Iowa, hardly sufficient to require the services of a special department under the state government to attend to their welfare.

However, we cannot approach such a project on a state-wide basis for the benefit of the deaf-mute population alone. It stands to reason that more people need the services of a labor commissioner for the deaf than we find by striking the proportion by the old rule of 1 to every 1500. The question arises here, and is bound to arise elsewhere under similar circumstances: Who are "the deaf"?

What is the yardstick by which an ordinary census enumerator may determine who are the deaf and who are the hearing, for purposes of making a census classification? Who is qualified to lay down such a yardstick, the government, the officials of schools for the deaf, the leagues for the hard of hearing, the Volta Bureau, or "the organized deaf"? I judge it to be the joint duty of all these elements.

I take it that the most important thing before us at this time is to find out in a lump sum how many people have defective hearing to the extent that it affects their chances of obtaining employment. To find this out, we are not concerned about such fine distinctions as whether the individual is a deaf-mute, is hard of hearing, is deafened, can read the lips, or can speak. When a legislative committee asks the question: How many deaf people are there, to be affected by this legislation? they will be impressed by the largest total we can quote. Therefore, it is essential that we get together on this, and determine upon a yardstick by which the average census enumerator can readily classify "the deaf" from "the hearing." I propose the following:

For the purpose of determining the need and scope of a labor bureau for the deaf, we understand the term "the deaf" to mean: *All persons whose hearing is too defective to enable them to understand ordinary conversation through the ear.*

I submit this as the starting point for a discussion. Others may offer a better definition. If so, fine. We seek the best possible definition, one that will confuse nobody.

We should first get together in an effective effort to secure the figure approximating as closely as possible the total number of persons in each state whose hearing is so seriously impaired as to affect their chances of securing employment. The rest will follow.

Will the NADministration take this up as a project worthy of being initiated by "the organized deaf," or would it be better to wait until others determine this answer without consulting us, as is so often the case?

Mr. Royal Brown, noted writer, in a contribution Are the Deaf Indifferent? which appeared in the *N.A.D. Bulletin,* March 1935, stresses the fact that the great handicap of the deaf is not deafness but rather the injustice of society in considering them incompetent.

The truth is that if there is a "forgotten man" to-day, it is the deafened man. It is curious that at a time when every agency of government is directed toward the help of every other individual, his social and economic betterment, the deafened are not only ignored, but still discriminated against. The policy appears to be not that "you are handicapped, let's see what we can do to place you" as it should be, but "you are handicapped, we refuse to place you."

This is not only unjust and anti-social, but it is absolutely asinine. The deaf have a defect but they surmount it by being far more mentally and physically alert than those who can hear. They have to be. In any position where hearing is not the prime requisite, the chances are that the deaf man will be a better worker, other things being equal, than his hearing competitor. He neither expects nor wants to be told the same thing twice. All his powers of apprehension, aside from hearing, are keen to discover what he must do, quickly. And he has the same power of concentration that marked Edison.

In this state of affairs Mr. Brown sees the need for a determined, militant stand of the deaf to assert their right to fair consideration. He states also that the most practical agency now available for this purpose is the National Association of the Deaf.

The deaf have never asked favors. They have to the contrary suffered discrimination. That must and should end. It will end when the deaf make themselves heard. There are, after all, millions of us who are deafened in some degree. The discrimination against us is stupid. It is also mostly political. There is no person quicker to hear the rumblings of a revolution than a politician. A vigorous minority alarms him more than a sleeping army.

To the deaf therefore I say this: Get out and fight. Back up your national association. Make it a fighting organization. Let every legislature, every political appointee know that when he refuses to recognize the rights of the deaf, when he introduces some fool law aimed at the deaf, that he is going to mix it with one of the fightingest classes on the face of this old sphere—*the deaf.*

Someone once said that it didn't matter what the size of the dog in the fight was, what counted was the size of the fight in the dog. I think nothing truer was ever said.

It is up to you, the membership of this Association, how hard you are willing to fight, how far you will go in backing up the efforts of an organization that, heaven be praised, is definitely and determinedly and, I think, persistently and pugnaciously militant. As it should be.

If the deaf do not get together now, stand behind their organization in every way, fight with it and for it, then they are worse than deaf. They are dumb. And like dumb driven cattle. . . .

An account in the *North Dakota Banner,* March-April 1935, by Miss Hazel Jack of the North Dakota School offers an excellent illustration of how the teacher must be ever on the watch to turn an incident of the moment to advantage in getting a lesson across.

I can well remember my first attempts in teaching the baby deaf to tap dance. Twelve tiny tots without language, speech or hearing were marched into the gymnasium. My duty was to develop their sense of rhythm and teach them to dance. I had eagerly anticipated this hour and plunged into my work with enthusiasm. Previous experience with hearing children prompted me to proceed in the usual manner of lining up my pupils and demonstrating the dance. It was an adorable little routine entitled "Tiny Taps," absolutely guaranteed to develop the smallest tap dancers in three lessons. It had proven its worth with the hearing children but somehow it lost its value with the deaf.

The demonstration on my part seemed to hold their attention but when I demanded they follow me through the first step I ran into difficulty. A few were kind enough to imitate me but the majority found interests elsewhere. It is surprising to note how unimportant a teacher becomes in the presence of a waving window curtain, a sheet of music fluttering to the floor or an untied shoe lace. I collected my class and before long was striving to teach brush forward, brush backward, stomp, stomp. In order to have a beginning class follow it is necessary for the instructor to have her back to the group. I soon discovered I was soloing and that my little class was seeking enjoyment in the opposite end of the room. Discouraged, quite out of patience and with some very definite ideas of discipline in mind I proceeded in the direction of my charges. Such a gay time as they were having! The object of this hilarity centered about a cricket. Little did I dream this insect had come in time to help me put across my first idea in tapping. Several of the class were executing perfect brushes and stomps. In fact one of the stomps was so perfect the result was fatal to the cricket. As soon as they noticed me they immediately enacted their experience with the bug. I responded by joining them. We continued these exaggerated actions until the close of the period.

At the next meeting of the class I held up a cricket which I had cut from black paper. They were delighted and immediately dramatized their former experience with the cricket. I placed this on the floor ahead of my right foot. Then I demonstrated the command "Kick the cricket, forward." In order to save time I gave each child a cricket and soon the entire class had learned "Kick the bug, forward." After this I gave the command "Kick the cricket, backwards." "Step on it." The next task was to shorten and time these steps. Before long this little device had aided me in developing the shuffle. I still use the idea in presenting tap work to babies but a ten cent beetle now replaces the little cricket.

In a Teachers' Association discussion of the subject of extracurricular activities, reported in the Minnesota School *Companion,* March 28, 1935, Miss Lillian Huset enumerated

the benefits of Girl Scouting in a school for the deaf. She mentioned, aside from the broader values, a number of advantages which deaf girls in particular may derive from this sort of training.

Few girls of Scout age appreciate the value of training to become homemakers which they receive from their mothers or, as in our case, in the school, but when they realize that Scouting recognizes such ability by giving badges for proficiency along such lines, this work takes on a different aspect. This was brought out one day recently when the younger girls were passing their test in bedmaking. One of the supervisors came in and said she had several beds to get ready for girls returning from the hospital. The Girl Scouts begged to do them.

The contacts that Scouting brings our girls are valuable. The girls feel that they have one more thing in common with their hearing sisters when they know they are members of a world-wide organization. They like to mingle with Girl Scouts from troops down town. Most of these girls are really interested in our girls and have learned from contact with them which is probably their only contact with the deaf that our girls are just the same as they themselves. One troop down town is learning the manual alphabet in place of signalling and has asked our girls to pass them in their test. The community service that our troop is asked to do each year also makes our girls feel a part of a larger organization than just the small group within our school.

In properly conducted athletics, Mr. T. L. Anderson of the Iowa School, sees an opportunity for the school to impart the stamina required to face the trials of life. The importance of this phase of the education of deaf boys and girls is stressed by Mr. Anderson in the *Iowa Hawkeye,* March 1935, in a discussion on Courage.

In the final analysis, these boys and girls of ours need all the courage we can inspire in them. Not only do the problems of life which everyone must face nowadays require courage, but it requires the highest form of courage to face life as it must be lived, lacking the sense of hearing. It takes courage to live the life of a deaf person, knowing that to fall short of the achievements of the normal person means that you are to invite pity if not belittlement for your handicap. We have seen many young deaf people, lacking this quality of courage, run away from life, to pass their colorless days in the shelter of their parents' homes, forgotten. The great majority, however, manage during their school days to build up a positive morale which inspires their best fighting qualities throughout the remainder of their lives. These are the ones who can be counted upon to stick in the game, regardless of the score, until the final whistle blows. These are the ones who come to see the truth in the statement that it requires considerably more equipment than a pair of ears to achieve victory in the thrilling game of life. For these, there will be defeats, but no setbacks. To these we dedicate the best efforts of our school staff.

The importance of eliciting the intelligent interest of parents in the school work of their children is brought out in the *Arkansas Optic,* February 1935, by Mr. Nathan Zim-

ble, principal in the Arkansas School. His observation on this matter is given in this excerpt:

One cannot too strongly condemn the parent who will send his child away to school, in many cases hundreds of miles from home, in the keeping of "strangers" and then purposely or unwittingly neglect to write to his child often for months at a time. Yet there are, I must sadly confess, such parents. And such parents unnecessarily add to our disciplinary problems. We have our usual number of such problems, but one of the most difficult tasks is to induce a child to continue to write home week after week in spite of the fact that he fails to receive even a postal card from his home folks. Such a child rebels openly to the point where he simply will not write and will refuse to do any of his school work and has to be constantly watched lest he run off. In several instances pupils come weepingly into the office asking to be sent home as they fear one or both of their parents are ill.

If some parents could but only visualize the joy they bring to their children by writing regularly, and the harm and unnecessary worry they cause on the part of the child by failing to do so, they would, I venture to say, NEVER neglect this duty; for it is every bit as much a duty for the parent to write to the child as it is for the child to write regularly to the parent.

Write to your child regularly; use clear simple language; let him know that you are interested in his progress; comment on his report cards. In other words, show an active interest in how your child is progressing at school. You will thus be aiding us materially in the carrying out of many of our projects; for it is only the contented child who can be taught successfully.

There are still other parents who, although they write regularly, show very little interest in their children's school work. Pupils of such parents are apt to become very indifferent to the poor showing that they may make; for to quote one pupil who had been reprimanded because of his low grades: "I do not care; my mother does not care what I get on my report cards." It is difficult to keep one's feeling under control when brought up against such circumstances, but we keep on patiently reasoning with the child to break down his stubborn, if not to say righteous, resistance, knowing as we do that it is the parent who is at fault. And so, parent, we will greatly appreciate your co-operation. Write to your child; write regularly and comment on his progress.

That discipline as a school measure should have a constructive motive is the viewpoint of Supt. Robert D. Morrow of the Arizona School, according to a discussion in the *Arizona Cactus*, March 1935.

How many times has the peaceful atmosphere of a school been shattered by the demand of some irate parent to know why his child was severely punished for some misdemeanor he did—or didn't do according to the child's story? Not only do parent and superintendent come to odds over this matter, but also superintendent and teacher, teacher and supervisor and other members of the school staff.

Truly the problem of discipline in a school that houses so many children of different temperaments, upbringing, race and color is indeed a difficult one. Those shouldered with this responsibility may be doing their best, but opinions are many and varied on how discipline should be maintained in a residential school.

No fast set rule will hold for a group of different types of individuals. One notable characteristic of our state schools is the decided attempt at standardization even in matters of discipline. In this manner the schools become "institutionized," that is, the pupils are considered as a class rather than as individuals, all personalities are drowned, and the school becomes no longer a school. Thus where discipline is concerned, all pupils must abide by the rule and be punished accordingly regardless of individual differences and needed readjustments to school life. However, difficult as this problem of discipline may seem, there are certain factors that will work toward its success.

The factors Mr. Morrow has in mind as conducive to successful discipline are: 1. Faith on the part of the parents that the school is taking care of the child satisfactorily; 2. A well-co-ordinated school staff working together in orderly and harmonious manner; and 3. Complete understanding between pupil and teacher when there is need for measures of restraint.

Discipline, too, has a broader aspect than that of dealing with infraction of rules. In its more positive phase

It should include those branches of study that find so little footing in most of our state schools, namely, character building, the art of getting along with other people, manners and morals and the importance of being considerate of others. This would help increase the sum of human happiness, the school would be doing its duty by the child, and the state would be getting a bigger value out of its educational investment.

The *Canadian*, April 1935, explains a device for pupil self-government adopted in the Ontario School mainly in an effort to overcome the lack of initiative ordinarily resulting from the routine of institution life.

There are many great advantages of institutional life in a school such as this that many day-school children do not enjoy. The pupils here are subject to a regimen of food and sleep and recreation and exercise and health oversight that promotes to the utmost their physical and mental development. But in this very system, admirable though it is in general, there is an element of weakness. Of necessity the pupils are subject to rigid rules, are under constant supervision even in their sports and recreations, have almost everything done for them; and there is a danger, almost a certainty, that they become too dependent on others, lack opportunity to think and judge and decide for themselves and to develop their own individualities, to the possible detriment of their future success.

In order, as far as possible, to overcome this handicap, and to give them more training in assuming and carrying out responsibilities, the superintendent, in consultation with members of the staff, has formulated and put into tentative operation, a system of self-government among the senior and intermediate pupils. The boys were directed to elect five commissioners, and the girls a similar number. With the approval of the superintendent the commissioners are empowered:

1. To confer with the superintendent and staff on matters of interest to the student body.
2. To appoint and direct certain supervisory inspectors and officers.
3. To hold council, and, with the approval of the superintendent, to make decisions which will help those who have made mistakes to better their business and social habits.

The franchise was given to all intermediate and senior pupils, but only seniors were eligible for nomination and election.

The election proceedings were conducted exactly as in municipal and parliamentary elections. Mr. Ellis (instructor of civics) was appointed returning officer, and the boys and girls fully grasped his full and explicit explanations and directions as to how the election was to be conducted. The keenest interest was shown by every boy and girl, the proceedings were carried on without confusion or error, and the intelligent manner in which the vote was taken is shown by the fact that in the 100 ballots cast by the boys there was only one spoiled ballot, and only one by the 64 girls who voted, the error being caused by the two pupils voting for six candidates instead of only five; and that the pupils were fully conversant with all the tricks of the election was indicated by the fact that there was a considerable number of plumpers, while others voted for only two, three or four.

The importance of a larger share of pupil responsibility in editing, and preparing material for, the school paper is stressed in the *California News* for December 25, 1934, by Mr. Winfield S. Runde. Such a policy would have a wholesome effect upon the entire school community, according to the following observations by Mr. Runde:

It is evident that the school papers are printing more and more compositions of the pupils. It is an excellent language incentive and we feel that it should be continuously encouraged. Where possible to do so it is not a bad idea to turn one issue of the school paper each month over to capable pupils. Of course this should always be under the direction of a teacher. We have said before that we thoroughly believe the project to be a most worthy part of pupil training where talent in language usage is evident. It is just what the public schools are doing. Nothing is more interesting to the student body as a whole than the school publication that is edited by the pupils themselves.

At this school it is our intention to continue to encourage this important project of school life. We have but one serious drawback however which prevents us from pushing the project to a desired standard of excellence. That is the lack of talented and capable student executives who also are adept at language expression. We no sooner get down to good work and understanding with one set of editors and writers than they graduate and we must begin all over again. But it is all in the work and we must deal with the material at hand.

In very large schools, that is, schools with an enrollment of 500 students, it should not be difficult to make proper selections of student editors and obtain articles from the student body. As far as possible, it seems to us, since we are in reality a large family living under the same roof, it would also tend to help language comprehension if most of the material submitted has to do with school activities. In a school like a school for the deaf, where students live

as in a home, there is a rich source of live language always on tap. The meetings of student bodies, such as the Literary Society, Girl Reserves, athletic clubs, dramatic clubs, Boy Scouts, chess clubs, organized trips to places, dinners, dances, parties and the like all give a fertile language background. Why shouldn't this be utilized and vitalized? We can do it by giving the students responsibility in getting out a school paper. Naturally at the beginning it will be hard sledding, but later on things begin to move more smoothly even with a change of editors and when a new start must be made. Patience and genuine interest in the project on the part of the teachers in charge can work wonders in stimulating intellectual curiosity in the students with good results. The work of searching for material, preparation of copy, setting it to type, correcting proofs, printing, binding, cutting and mailing—all the necessary steps in getting out a magazine dealing with vital student life amounts actually to a thrilling adventure to the student editors. So let us have pupils' editions of our school papers. They make the school prosper because they inject life into the whole school organization. It is a healthy condition which progressive educators desire.

According to the *Companion,* February 28, 1935, ethical training the last forty years and more has been given recognition as a definite part of the course of study at the Minnesota School, and to this end a graded series of lessons based upon a formal textbook prepared by the Teachers' Association of the school has been employed. The book for the advanced classes, for instance, follows this order of topic material:

GOOD MANNERS

I—The Value of Good Manners
II, III, IV—Good Manners Relating to the Person
V, VI, VII, VIII—Good Manners at the Table
IX—Good Manners on the Street and in Public
X, XI, XII—Good Manners in Society
XIII—Good Manners While Visiting
XIV—Good Manners at Home
XV—Good Manners at School
XVI—Good Manners in Stores
XVII—Good Manners in Traveling
XVIII—Good Manners to the Aged
XIX—Good Manners in Borrowing
XX—Good Manners in Conversation
XXI, XXII, XXIII—Good Manners in Letting Writing

GOOD MORALS

I—Value of Good Morals
II—Right
III—Our Duties to Inferior Animals
IV, V, VI, VII—Our Duties to Ourselves
VIII, IX, X, XI—Duties Relating to the Family
XII, XIII—Duties Relating to Society
XIV, XV, XVI—Duties Relating to our Fellow Men
XVII, XVIII, XIX—Duties Relating to the State
XX—Duties to God

Commenting on an editorial in the *Buff and Blue,* student publication at Gallaudet College, on the decadence of the college literary society, Mr. Tom L. Anderson in the *Iowa Hawkeye,* February 1935, speaks vigorously for a revival of interest in what formerly served as an effective instrument in developing cultural interest among deaf students. The decline of the literary society as a school function he lays to three influences, *to wit,*

1. Moving pictures.
2. The introduction of a "social" following the program.
3. The mongrel quality of the sign language used by present-day teachers of the deaf who are the only examples the young people see.

And he urges further:

> Let us get back to first principles, and recognize the value of the literary society object, for young deaf people who are going to find their greatest social pleasures in life in company with one another, in their religious, fraternal, social, and athletic organizations. Let us acknowledge the fact that in the "talkies" the deaf have a well-nigh valueless substitute for the ideal movies, and that they are forced again to exert themselves singly and collectively to provide for their own cultural diversion. Let us seek to inspire the present generation with something of the old fire, the old love of attainment, the old supreme satisfaction which comes with the mastery of an art as difficult and exacting as the art of the platform orator, the pulpit exhorter, the impassioned personal advocate of measures pressed for the advancement of the race, the scornful denouncer of the demagogue. This cannot be put across in the manual alphabet. It cannot be written on the blackboard. Nor can it be read from the lips of a speaker who must stand still and hold his graven features in the position most convenient to those who would infer the extent of his plea from his feebly fluttering lips.
>
> Let us relegate the "social" to the position rightfully belonging to the "social" which has no connection whatever as a weight to the tail of the Literary Society kite. Let the Literary Society meet for its true purpose, and to that purpose give it adequate time and thoughtful preparation. And let it ever be inspired and its activities be guided by those who can measure up to the standard of the true exemplar of platform oratory and all that this term implies.
>
> The field of the Literary Society is a distinct one in the plan of a well-rounded education design to fit today's youth for community service in the New Day. It has its true place in the lives of the deaf, and will always have this place. The indifference of the present generation is a reflection upon the leadership of today, which is too much inclined to cast out the old, before an effective substitute is found.

What About Our Slow Deaf Children? is the question raised by Miss Lorna Johnson of the South Dakota School, in the *South Dakota Advocate,* May 1935. Miss Johnson offers a timely and forceful argument on this much neglected subject, and even though the discussion is longer than

the usual excerpt in this review it is well worth repeating here in its entirety.

The teacher of a class of backward deaf children finds it practically impossible to find material on methods and devices for teaching her class, to say nothing of accurate information as to the status of the slow deaf child in school today. For example in the *Convention Weekly Bulletins* issued during the school year 1933 and 1934, there were only two articles by teachers of backward deaf children. I have carefully gone through the ANNALS published since 1920, and found very little in regard to special class work. Perhaps authorities in schools for the deaf agree that the average and superior children should have the consideration of all the educators in the field, perhaps the teachers themselves hesitate to say anything about their problems or their successes because they can't expect to be listened to, or perhaps each superintendent keeps his special classes as far in the background as possible. And no doubt, there are a great many teachers of slow children who aren't interested enough in the children to want really to do anything more for them than is absolutely required. There is nothing to be ashamed of in teaching a class of mentally deficient deaf children. Teaching slow children shouldn't be considered an opportunity to slide easily along because no one expects much, if anything, of a slow child anyway.

There are so many things that only the genuinely interested teacher can do for the deaf child whose learning capacity is below normal. Almost every child in the special classes to-day will sooner or later be out on his own and apparently his preparation for that time often is being not only slighted but almost neglected. The superior and average deaf children will find life difficult enough after they leave school but most of them will be able to get along in that they have the capacity to learn independently. No child's education is ended when he leaves school, but a backward deaf child will learn surprisingly little arithmetic or language after he quits school. No one is going out of his way to make simple explanations to the really stupid child and the chances that at the age of twenty or fifty he will be able to acquire facts by himself are remote. The mentally deficient deaf must learn the essentials of reading, of writing, of arithmetic and language in school or they will never learn them. We must work out some course of study adaptable to the individual, a course of study which contains only the *minimum* essentials.

It is a shame that a backward boy or girl should be sent away from a school, after spending from ten to fourteen years in it, without adequate training in some vocation. Unless a child is downright feebleminded, he shouldn't be allowed to leave school until he has mastered some occupation by which he can make a bare living, at least. That a child has a fairly low intelligence quotient doesn't mean that he can't perform some type of menial labor efficiently.

If it is the purpose of education to prepare the child for life, our schools for the deaf fall short of accomplishing their complete purpose. Too many of us have a tendency to take too little into consideration a child's natural aptitude for certain types of activities and think too much of his scholastic ability.

Some enterprising psychologist might work out a set of aptitude tests for deaf children. And upon the basis of the results of such tests, each child from the time he is fairly young until he leaves school might be trained in whatever occupation he is naturally most fitted for. In the small school there would be difficulties in carrying

out such a plan but in the larger schools where a wide variety of trades and vocational training is given, it could be done.

Accurate information as to the number of manually taught deaf and the backward deaf is apparently unavailable. In speaking of *backward deaf* I mean those deaf children whose I.Q.'s are below 80 and by *manually taught* I mean those children who are taught, to the best advantage by the manual alphabet, the manual method or by a combination of the two.

According to the ANNALS for January 1935, there were in October 1934, 14,652 children in the 64 public residential schools for the deaf in the United States. Of the 64 schools only 11 are listed as strictly oral schools. In other words in 53 of the 64 schools some form or combination of the manual methods are used.

Because of the manner in which the number of children taught orally is recorded in the ANNALS it is impossible to find the exact number of children who are taught by other methods. However, by subtracting the total of 11,776 children taught wholly or chiefly by the oral method from the 14,652 in the residential schools, we have a remainder of 2,876, which means that about that number of children must be taught by manual methods.

I have no proof for this statement but I believe that about 7% of the deaf children in school now have intelligence quotients below 80. There are probably out of the 14,652 children in schools for the deaf at least 2,000 who are not capable of learning at the same rate of speed, or of learning as much as the deaf child of average intelligence. Not all of the children in manual classes are mentally deficient, but it can safely be said that almost every mentally deficient deaf child is eventually put into a manual class in the combined schools. If in spite of the strong trend toward the oral method 53 of the 64 public residential schools have manual departments, we should hear more about what is going on in those departments in the various schools.

A mentally deficient deaf child can not be taught to the best advantage by the same devices and methods as the average deaf child any more than a mentally deficient hearing child can be profitably taught by the same methods as a hearing child of average intelligence. In teaching slow deaf children some ways and means must be superior to others. There must be modification and adaptation of methods to their peculiar types of mentality.

Perhaps the very backward deaf child doesn't belong in the school for the deaf, but he is there, in most states, and will continue to be there until the institutions for the feeble-minded can provide for him. In thinking of slow deaf children we should always remember that there are many who if they had normal hearing would be able to get by. Take hearing away from the morons you meet on the street every day and it would be enlightening, indeed, to find how many people do get by because they have all five senses.

According to the ANNALS the average number of pupils in a manual class is eleven. There are 182 deaf teachers in the academic departments, almost all of whom must be teaching by manual methods. Many of them teach rotating oral classes manually part of the time. Dividing the approximate number of children who are not taught orally, by eleven, the average number of pupils in a manual class, I find that there must be almost 200 teachers teaching manually in the academic departments. There are some hearing people teaching in manual classes but figures are not available. Because slow pupils are placed in manual classes, it is safe to say that practically all of those 200 are teaching slow pupils at least a part of

the time. It is hard to believe that in the work for the deaf there are almost 200 teachers who have the most difficult classes with which to work but who so seldom have a word to say in our educational publications about their problems or experiences. It would be most interesting to know what preparation the special class teachers have had and even more interesting to know exactly why almost 200 of those who are teaching slow children are teaching that type of child. In the nine-year period from 1925 to 1934, according to information taken from the ANNALS and the Gallaudet College catalogue, of the approximately 141 graduates of Gallaudet College during those years, eight are teaching manual classes and fourteen "unclassified" are teaching both oral and manual classes. Obviously the graduates of Gallaudet are not the deaf who become instructors of our slow children. The fact that some who were graduated before 1925 may be teaching slow classes may account in part for the small number of recent graduates in that field. However many of the classes must be taught by deaf teachers who did not finish college or never went to college at all.

Teachers of manual and backward classes need special training as well as teachers of oral classes. There isn't at the present time a place in the United States where an interested individual, either hearing or deaf, can take special courses in methods of teaching backward deaf children or in the psychology of the slow deaf child. Surely with some two thousand "retarded" deaf in our schools now, and no reason to believe there will ever be less, there is need of a training school for teachers of backward deaf children. And it would be most gratifying to see more schools in which a distinction is made between the definitely mentally deficient child and the manually taught child of average intelligence.

Why shouldn't Gallaudet train interested students? A Gallaudet graduate possessing patience and ingenuity, *given a sound course in special methods, psychology, arts and crafts* and *some practice teaching* should make an ideal special class teacher. It is evident that teaching stupid children has had little appeal to Gallaudet graduates since 1925 at least. However, considering the lower salaries frequently paid to the deaf who teach backward classes and their status in the schools with good oral departments, there is little wonder that the better educated deaf are not more interested.

If at some time in the future Gallaudet College should give special training to a few teachers of slow children each year, would the superintendents pay them salaries equivalent to those paid oral teachers, and give them equal consideration in all other respects as well?

What are you thinking about the slow deaf child and his education?

The need of arousing a more widespread interest in the problems of impaired hearing is stressed by Supt. L. M. Elstad of the Minnesota School. In the *Companion* for December 6, 1934 he outlines some of the steps taken in his state in educating the public to become "ear-minded."

We all appreciate the necessity of educating the public to the work being done for the deaf and hard of hearing today. More than this the public needs information upon the question of the presence of hearing losses in the school population of our large educational system today. And the public needs to know what can be done to detect these cases of hearing loss and then what to do with them after they have been found. There are various ways to accomplish this end.

Needless to say the residential school for the deaf and hard of hearing in each state should be a part of such a program. There are various large groups in the state that can be contacted to advantage. The State Parent Teachers' Association has a meeting each year. It usually has a session devoted to health. The ear has not had its place on this program to any great extent and it certainly should have. The State Medical Association is a splendid group to contact. This past summer the committee on Deafness Prevention and Amelioration had a booth at the State Medical Association Convention in Duluth. In this booth were displayed charts of different kinds prepared to catch the eye of the doctors passing the booth. There were placards explaining the testing program carried on in the public schools of the state. Others showed the necessity for the care of the ear. Others showed the different agencies engaged in the work of helping those who are deafened. There were placards picturing the work of our own school for the deaf. The instruments used for testing to find the degree of deafness were on display. These were the 5-A, 4-A, 3-A, and 2-A audiometers. We also had a "talking book" in the booth which is for the blind, of course. However, we felt that it was of sufficient interest to the medical profession to warrant its placement in our booth. There was an abundance of literature in leaflet form to be read and distributed. Doctors were asked to register at the booth so that their names would be on the mailing list for future articles and reprints.

This was all a new venture, originated because of the interest of Dr. Horace Newhart, of Minneapolis, the chairman of the Committee on Deafness Prevention and Amelioration. Mr. Farrar of our staff and I worked in this booth for two days during the convention. We made friends for the work of the deaf and hard of hearing, I know.

The plight of the hard-of-hearing child who is permitted to "drift" through the ordinary public school is depicted with striking insight by Dr. J. W. Blattner, superintendent of the Oklahoma School, in a discussion in the *Deaf Oklahoman* for December 15, 1934.

In the discharge of our official duties the question often arises, What advice shall we give as to the educational provision of a hard-of-hearing child? Should such child attend the public schools for the hearing, be taught by a private teacher or be sent to a school for the deaf? This question is in many cases puzzling not only to parents but to the authorities of a school as well. Parents are of course naturally solicitous about promoting their handicapped child's best interests. They are anxious that he have the best obtainable educational advantages, while at the same time they strongly desire that such education be obtained at home if possible. The latter impulse is usually so compelling that it overcomes all other considerations and the child, without a test of the degree of hearing possessed or consultation with persons informed upon the subject, is placed in the public schools at home. The whole procedure, as far as judgment takes any part in it, is little more than the result of a guess, a mere venture. Sometimes the guess may happen to have been correct, if the child has a considerable degree of hearing and is alert and quick at catching on, but more often a mistake has been made which leads to disappointment, discouragement, loss of valuable time and even serious consequences.

Teachers yield to the urgent solicitations of parents, who may be people of some influence in the community, and the child is admitted

without the slightest conception on the part of the teacher as to how to go about instructing such child, of the difficulties she will encounter or of the many heartaches the pupil may suffer. She will doubtless proceed on the theory that the child, by his own ingenuity and self-assertiveness, can adjust himself into an active, co-ordinate unit of the class, but such condition is very seldom the outcome. Children, as a rule, especially little ones, have a feeling and attitude of dependence; they look to the teacher for the initiative, and few of them are moved at first by native promptings to strike out on an independent line. What then can be expected of a child handicapped by defective hearing? He can not enter freely into the recitations and the frequent side talks coming up in the classroom, he is often surprised by some demonstration, by a general outburst of laughter from the class, and many bewildering things arise that tend to produce within the child's inner consciousness an inferiority complex, that most depressing mental attitude to which a human being can be subjected.

The individual instruction and encouragement which the child needs because of his handicap can not be accorded in sufficient measure, as the ordinary public school teacher is burdened with large classes and the teaching of a wide variety and assortment of subject matter. The hard-of-hearing child is accordingly neglected and allowed largely to shift for himself, to drift along without assimilating much of what the class is being taught. If there is any appreciable process of acquisition, it is mostly that of absorption. For the sake of appearance and to placate the parents, also perhaps to get rid of an irksome problem, the child is given a passing grade and promoted with the class. In the next grade doubtless similar ineffective methods are pursued with the unfortunate child and a like tragedy of neglect is enacted; and so on from grade to grade the pupil, increasing in stature and encumbered with the practical waste of years, stumbles along his monotonous, wellnigh profitless course until luckily he is allotted to a teacher with a more sensitive consideration for his welfare, who calls a halt to this unconscionable pretense, decides that they are not equipped to teach him properly, that he is not their problem anyway and that he must be sent to the school for the deaf. In his floundering around under inefficient instruction and helpless supervision several years of the precious development period have been largely wasted, perhaps more than wasted. Habits of surface skimming, of lack of concentration and of shiftlessness have been formed. The pupil comes to us sometimes almost half grown without being grounded in the fundamentals of any subject of study, indeed without having learned a single thing thoroughly.

This is not an exaggerated picture. Pupils in such sadly neglected condition have come under our observation repeatedly. Indeed, we have taken in pupils who have been passed along to the fourth or fifth grade in schools for the hearing and upon examination were found to be so deficient in language and the mere rudiments of other branches that they had to be started all over, at the bottom. It is almost invariably the case that hard-of-hearing pupils coming to us from schools for hearing children fall below their grade when tested out and classified here. From extended observation we have concluded, therefore, that children with hearing so defective that they cannot conveniently take part in the activities of a class for hearing children sustain a serious loss by being subjected to such ordeal over an extended period. They should be sent to a school for the deaf where they can be trained in speech and lip-reading, where their language can be intelligently and systematically improved and where their general education can be carried on by well-adapted methods.

Claiming great harm is possible if a clear distinction is not made between the hearing power of hard-of-hearing persons and the lack of such power in *deaf* persons, Mr. Elwood A. Stevenson, in the *California News,* February 25, 1935, elaborates upon his understanding of the various groups so far as hearing is concerned, namely (1) normal hearing; (2) hard of hearing; (3) deaf. His ideas on this subject of "sound perception" versus "hearing interpretation" are given in this part of the discussion:

Practically 80 per cent of all deaf persons possess a "slit of hearing" or what the writer commonly terms "sound perception." This is not hearing in the common sense in which we consider hearing. To you hearing is of use in communication, understanding, and appreciation of what goes on about you. You hear a lecture, you hear the message over the telephone, you have music and all is heard with understanding and interpretive appreciation. There is a rapid and unconscious mental interpretation of spoken and expressed thought. This is hearing and this the deaf person *does not possess.* The power or center of mental interpretation is that which is reached through the aid of a hearing device in the case of a hard-of-hearing person. His power of mental interpretation is ever present and capable of functioning, but because of some physical cause the paths or avenues to it from the outside are obstructed or partially cut off. In his case it is purely physical and with the aid of a hearing device this condition is overcome and the contact between the spoken thought and the mental interpretation center is renewed.

However, with the deaf person the paths or avenues carrying these auditory impressions and patterns are not partially cut off but wholly and entirely obliterated. There is no "hearing mental interpretation" to be experienced by the deaf person. One must consider that the full function of hearing is both physical and mental. There can be no true hearing without the mental interpretation of spoken thought. Nevertheless, the average deaf person does possess certain isolated "sound receptive isles" which must not be misunderstood for hearing. He can react through the ear to sounds of various kinds, such as the clapping of hands, the blowing of a whistle, the ringing of a bell, the sound of the voice, and musical instruments. He can react to the call of his name and to a list of words taught him through the ear. The experiment can be carried even to the point where he can react to short commands or sentences which do not involve a true language sense or concept. For example, he can react to "Hello," "What is your name?," "Where do you live?," "Stand up," "Sit down," "How are you?" However, this is not truly mental interpretation of spoken thought in the sense of: "Three weeks ago, the football team of the school made a trip to Los Angeles and defeated their opponents by a large score." A deaf child with sound perception could not react to or "hear" this spoken thought, but a hard-of-hearing person could easily do so provided the statement were made within his hearing range. With no thought of comparison, but wholly for the sake of the point in question, take a trained dog. You can have him follow your commands of "Sit up," "Roll over," "Speak," "Come here," "Get your ball." He does not "hear" and interpret spoken thought as do you. Yet he reacts to these commands. How? He does it through the sound and rhythmic beat of the voice. And so it is

with sound perception. There is no "hearing interpretation" in sound perception. It is reaction to combinations of sounds and vibratory impulses of vowels.

Therefore, oftentimes because a deaf child can respond to musical sounds or vocal sounds on the radio or through some hearing device, many parents, otologists, and hearing aids salesmen think they have "discovered" hearing possibilities, and immediately begin to assume that the child has hearing. This is a very serious and dangerous matter and cannot be treated lightly. Parents of deaf children must keep their thinking caps on and their feet on the ground for the sake of their children. Do not rush into this without consulting the superintendent of the school for the deaf in your state. Advise the salesman to talk with the superintendent and also inform him that there are hundreds of other deaf children at the school, and that if a hearing aid is of value to your child, it should be of value to the other hundreds of children so that instead of one sale he may have a hundred or more. No, this is a very vital matter and concerns the education and welfare of thousands of deaf children who already have serious difficulty without having this thrust upon them as an added hindrance in their struggles for an education.

The *Buff and Blue,* student publication at Gallaudet College, carries an item in its issue for March 15, 1935 on the results of certain psychological examinations taken by members of the college Freshman Class. As it offers opportunity for direct comparison between students at Gallaudet College (who are recruited mainly from our schools for the deaf) and students at other colleges, a comparison which is not unfavorable to the deaf, it is repeated here.

If one may judge from the caliber of its student body, Gallaudet College may rightfully claim a place of equality among other colleges. This is the meaning to be derived from results of a special psychological examination given last December to the Freshman Class by Professor Fusfeld.

The examination in question is one prepared annually by Dr. L. L. Thurstone, noted psychologist of the University of Chicago, under the auspices of the American Council on Education and is intended to determine standards or norms of ability for Freshmen in American colleges. The wide scope covered by the examination may be indicated from the fact that results are already in for more than 40,000 Freshman students. It comprises a series of five separate parts: Vocabulary; Arithmetic; Construction in Artificial Language; Recognition of Analogies (in Geometric Forms); Synonyms and Antonyms.

A report recently received by Professor Fusfeld gives results for this psychological examination based on the record of 40,358 Freshman students. The median for the Gallaudet group was a score of 160, which is in the gross very close to the median reported for the entire group. This is a very favorable rating for our Freshman Class.

Analysis of individual scores reveals facts of especial importance to us:

1. The leading Freshman student at Gallaudet obtained a score of 276 in the test. This is the equivalent of a percentile of 96+, that is, a ranking excelled by less than four per cent of those taking the test, about 1,500 out of 40,358.

2. Thirteen out of the 28 members of our Freshman Class—or

almost half—ranked above the median or general level established for the entire group of 40,358 students. This result is a matter for great satisfaction to the college, for it indicates that as a group our student body approximates in general ability the average level of students in other American colleges. Expressing it in figures, we may say that at least half of the 40,358 Freshman students who took the test are grouped at various distances in the scale *below* these thirteen students from Gallaudet College—these thirteen students comprising practically half the Freshman Class.

3. The standing of these students is as follows:

Student	Score	Percentile
A	276	96
B	253	91
C	246	88
D	239	84
E	222	80
F	217	75
G	207	69
H	206	69
I	183	57
J	178	51
K	170	51
L	170	51
M	169	50

The percentile, of course, represents the relative standing of each student (on the basis of every 100 individuals), and is the customary psychological measure to determine comparative rank.

4. Another fact of great significance in the results is to be found in the position of those of our students who ranked below the general median. The poorest student in our group had a percentile of almost four—that is, four per cent of the 40,358 students who took the test, or approximately 1,600, obtained a lower score than did our poorest student.

A subsequent report giving the final tabulations of results, with detailed analysis of each part of the examination, is eagerly awaited. This will reveal whether our students as a group excelled in certain phases of the test, whether they were especially weak in others, or whether they maintained a uniform level of comparative ability.

The net import of all these comparisons should be highly encouraging to the college and also to the schools which have been sending their graduates to us.

A complete reorganization of the program of study in the Ontario School—both academic and vocational—is announced in the *Canadian* for October 15, 1934, with a new emphasis on providing for individual aptitude and for more intensive vocational preparation. The new arrangement, which calls for a division of the school into Junior, Intermediate and Senior Sections, is well worth study by the serious student of our school system. Its main features are described as follows:

In the Junior School, boys and girls between the approximate ages of five and eleven are grouped in regular grades, each in charge of a

class teacher. Instruction is given in language, lip-reading and oral speech as well as in the fundamentals of reading, writing, spelling, composition, arithmetic and other foundational subjects. It is highly desirable that all pupils should enter the School between the ages of five and six in order that facility in language, lip-reading and speech may be gained during the plastic learning stage. Nevertheless, for pupils who have been unable to enter until a later age special primary groups have been arranged.

Pupils between the approximate ages of eleven and fourteen are placed in the Intermediate School. It is to be noted that a child's vocational training is not being held up on account of academic limitations, nor is his academic advancement being denied because of difficulties in the matter of oral speech and lip-reading.

Instead of being divided into grades, each under a class teacher, the Intermediate School is arranged into eight rotating groups which move from room to room or from room to shop. Academic work is in charge of five special teachers who conduct departments in arithmetic, reading and literature, English and composition, geography and nature study, history and civics. This arrangement permits: (1) a selection of teachers particularly gifted or accomplished in the art of presenting certain topics to non-hearing children and in the further development of such special teaching proficiency; (2) the adequate equipment of each departmental room with special material and devices suited to the teaching of the subject in hand; (3) a contact between special teacher and pupil continued over a period of several years which allows the individual needs of each student to be more carefully studied and to receive more considered attention; (4) the more rapid advancement of pupils along lines of proficiency. For example, a boy who displays special ability in arithmetic and geography may at any time be promoted to more advanced groups in these departments without having progress in these subjects delayed on account of weakness in language. These rotating groups are likewise taught art, manual training, household science, speech and rhythm in special rooms in charge of special teachers.

In the Intermediate School, courses in vocational guidance and vocational training are begun. Once or twice a week each rotating group visits the vocational guidance instructor and studies with him the various lines of employment which may be profitably pursued by non-hearing people. The nature of various occupations, opportunities of employment afforded by each, remunerations paid, possibilities of promotion offered, qualifications required of employees, etc., are discussed in detail. The boys of the Intermediate School are divided into six and the girls into six rotating vocational groups. Once each day over a period of six weeks the boys go to one or other vocational instructors in carpenter work, printing, shoemaking and shoe repairing, farming and its sub-branches (market gardening, poultry raising and fruit growing), tailoring, cleaning and pressing, commercial art, and the girls to one or other vocational instructors in dressmaking, millinery, beauty parlor work, laundry, cooking, commercial art. At the end of each six weeks' period the rotating vocational groups change instructors, completing the full round in the year.

While considerable vocational training will be afforded by this arrangement, the major purpose in view is to give pupils try-out contacts with various forms of employment so that each may discover through actual experience the trade or calling for which he is best suited and display to the instructors in charge his particular aptitudes. At the end of each six weeks' period the instructors will report on the proficiency shown by their charges and toward the close of the year each student will be called into consultation with the vocational and voca-

tional guidance instructors together with the superintendent for the purpose of helping him or her wisely to select a line of employment for specialized training. Communication will be made with parents concerning the results of these consultations and where a satisfactory agreement has been reached pupils may be permitted to specialize toward the close of their Intermediate School period.

The Senior School comprising pupils fifteen years of age and upward, has likewise been divided into eight rotating groups. Four of these groups during the morning and four during the afternoon session visit each day special academic rooms in charge of specialized instructors who conduct classes in the social sciences, geography, history, and civics; arithmetic and grammar; reading and literature; English and composition. During one or two periods per week each group receives instruction in art, rhythm and business procedure.

Intensive and specialized vocational instruction is given in the Senior School. After the experimental try-out courses in the Intermediate School and as a result of frequent conferences with instructors and superintendent, pupils are here required to finally decide upon a trade or calling in which they may receive specialized training. Courses in carpenter work, shoemaking and shoe repairing, printing, baking, tailoring, cleaning and pressing, business, commercial art, farming with its various branches, market gardening, fruit growing, poultry raising, and general agriculture have been provided for boys. Courses in dressmaking, fancy sewing, beauty parlor work, laundry work, cooking, general housework, business and commercial art have been provided for girls. The four groups which spend their mornings in the academic rooms spend their afternoons in shops practice; the four afternoon academic groups attend the various shops during the morning periods. By this arrangement all the senior pupils are provided with an adequate vocational training independent of their academic progress. Careful attention is also given in the Senior School to the correlation of academic studies with shop practice.

While full advantage is being taken of the various activities connected with the School to secure practice in regular trade operations, courses of study have been so systematized that pupils do not carry on these practices at random but proceed from skill to skill according to recognized educational procedure.

Cases of deaf children who have been kept out of school are not new, but an instance reported in the *Missouri Record*, February 9, 1935, by Supt. Truman L. Ingle of the Missouri School has about it a number of novel elements. This time it is a family of *five* deaf "children" who had never been to school. The follow-up by the school, and the question it raises, are described in this very interesting account headed "They Did Not Know."

In past years we have read frequently in the various publications of the l. p. f. of deaf boys and girls coming to school late in their teens or applying for admission after they had reached the age limit. We have all had these cases. Through one of our state representatives, we learned, about a month ago, of a family in southern Missouri in which there were five deaf "children" who had never been in school. Upon investigation by Mr. Norris, who went to the home, it was found that the youngest of these "children" was 22 and the oldest 38. Not

one of these "children" had ever attended school of any kind. As they were all beyond the age for legal admission to the Missouri School for the Deaf it was impossible for us to accept them as pupils. It was felt, however, that association with the deaf in our school and some shop work, together with some instruction in language and arithmetic would be of help to any of these "children" whom we might be able to admit. We, therefore, arranged for the two youngest of this family to be brought to school—a boy 22 and a girl 32. They are placed on our rolls as employees and in exchange for their instruction which we shall attempt to give them, work part time.

Both of these "children" appear to be intelligent, and are able to converse with each other through a system which they have themselves invented. It was our plan to teach dressmaking to the girl, but we found that she was able to look at a pattern or a dress and without any help cut out and make up any such garment. She has shown a great deal of interest in the dressmaking department, and we feel that surely she will receive some benefit.

Does not the case of this family give positive proof of the need for publicity and the dissemination of knowledge concerning the services of the schools for the deaf, as the parents reported as their reason for not sending these children, "We knew nothing about a school for deaf children, and thought there was nothing to be done"? The price of ignorance in cases of this kind eventually means an increase in the tax burden and the denial of the rights and privileges of education to those who deserve and need all that can be given to them.

Beyond the formal outline of curriculum is the need of taking stock of fundamentals. In an appeal on this subject in the *Deaf Carolinian,* February 16, 1935, Miss Enfield Joiner, educational principal in the North Carolina School, stresses essentials that are not always given due emphasis.

In our stock taking, other things than high grades, neat papers, acquisition of facts, skill in applying what has been taught, clear thinking and other proofs of school work well done should be taken into account. Has the class higher ideals, clearer conceptions of right and wrong, better self-control than at the beginning of the term? As individuals, are our pupils more conscientious in performing their daily tasks, are they more trustworthy, more able to assume responsibilities, more independent? Are they more careful of the small courtesies and graces of everyday living, more thoughtful of others, less selfish, kinder, more lovable? The ultimate end of all education is that the individual may be able to work out the most satisfactory design for living for himself. What progress have our pupils made in character development?

In a personal letter we recently received from a teacher in another school this comment was made on the work of a teacher who had but recently joined that faculty—"She has transformed a bunch of rough necks into courteous gentlemen." What an accomplishment! And valuable as knowledge of "reading, writing and 'rithmetic" is, how much more worth while to have done that than to have taught the multiplication table or to have secured perfect test papers. In taking stock, let us not forget "the intangibles, the imponderables." Let us ask ourselves the searching question, Is the class the better, the stronger, the happier for having had me for a teacher this term?

Review

Voice Building by Julia M. Connery and Irene B. Young, collaborator. Copyright 1935, Julia M. Connery. Being the technique of developing the voice of the deaf child and conserving natural quality in the voice of the hard of hearing.

Miss Julia M. Connery, principal of Central Institute, and Mrs. Irene B. Young, director of Speech and Hearing Nursery School, New York City, as collaborator, have just published a most instructive manual on Voice Building.

Psychological development rather than the mechanical is the basis upon which this book treats its subject. Vocalization is reflex in character, oral activity is a developmental function and its manifestations are kinaesthetic as well as auditory. This oral activity also acquires "meaning" by a combination of maturation and experience. To assure a maximum in this combined growth process, the book explains the need of exploring the multiple possibilities of all the sensory capacities and modes of expressive behavior as allies.

With the above groundplan as a point of departure, the writers proceed with a carefully detailed description of the mechanics of voice production, methods of building the speaking voice, and suggestions for the first steps in voice building with the piano, supplemented by special exercises in the classroom. There follows a program for further piano and classroom exercises to build the speaking voice. Rhythm work, emphasis (secured by volume, duration and pitch), and inflection (secured by change of pitch) are gone into with carefully outlined drill material. Consonant blending —so difficult of achievement for the young deaf child—as well as the special modifications assumed by vocalized sound in connected American speech, are treated fully in different chapters. The book also gives attention to the aid that may be obtained from the use of mechanical devices by which both the teacher and pupil may study their own phonetic patterns—visually by such means as the strobilion, phonelo-

scope, and osiso, and by ear with mechanical hearing or amplifying devices.

At this point the writers make an instructive observation on the danger of too enthusiastic devotion to a special interest.

> In the use of all mechanical devices, as well as the over zealous use of musical instruments, the teacher has one very definite responsibility. She is not primarily a research worker. She must recognize educational principles. She is forced to make a *judgment of values.*
>
> When any one phase of the work is emphasized to the exclusion of others, there is a resultant loss in certain opportunities and values. If the children are trained in certain techniques they are limited in acquisition of others. The loss must not outweigh the gain.

Why the Deaf Child Needs Speech is the subject of one important chapter. The deaf child must make himself understood, he must establish normal relations with the world about him, he must have an outlet for intelligent inquiry and so acquire sound judgments. Further,

> His ability to think clearly and precisely grows with his ability to differentiate between concepts, to judge significant differences. Speech has been the means whereby man has clarified those concepts and communicated their meaning to others. Spoken language is man's vehicle of thought. It is an accessory to clear thinking. As such it is the child's right and heritage. We cannot deny him means by which his life may be made more efficient and complete.

Finally, this valuable little book closes with some potent advice to the teacher of the deaf. The day is gone when all that suffices for classroom management is a bag of tricks acquired during a few months of normal training. Aside from preparation in her special field of interest, the teacher must be thoroughly acquainted with the broader applications of psychology and pedagogy. The good teacher, to achieve results, must know not only the sheer techniques of her work but she must also be fully acquainted with the social, physical, and personal background which the pupils bring with them. Nor must she at any time regard herself as finally qualified. Her maxim must be "Professional growth is both a challenge and an opportunity."

Miscellaneous

I. S. F.

Certification.—Since the last report, in the May ANNALS, the following teachers have made application for certification with the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, bringing the total to 506.

Dorothy Mae Arnold, West Virginia School
Julia Lawrence Arnold, West Virginia School
Lillian Della Ballard, Dayton (Ohio) Oral School
Mary Grey Barron, American School
Anne Butler Berkeley, Central New York School
Nicholas Anton Braunagel, South Carolina School
Emily Camenisch, West Virginia School
Anne K. Clark, Tuckahoe, New Jersey
Mary Elizabeth DeWitt, West Virginia School
Katherine A. Donnelly, Northern New York School
Ann Christine Douglas, West Virginia School for the Colored Deaf
Mary Evelyn Frame, Saskatchewan School
Charles B. Grow, Kentucky School
Edna Guyer, Niagara Falls, N.Y.
Margaret K. Haines, West Virginia School
Anna Elizabeth Hallman, Kansas School
Winifred Walters Hubbard, Kansas School
Lillian Roberts Jones, Louisiana School
Margaret Hopkins Keller, West Virginia School
Edith F. Kendall, Springfield (Mass.) Day-School
Helen F. Kirkpatrick, Tennessee School
Addie Lucinda Landers, Northern New York School
Toivo A. Lindholm, Minnesota School
John MacLean, Saskatchewan School
F. C. Numbers, Jr., Rochester, N.Y.
Leona Posey Numbers, Rochester School
Maggie Neel Proctor, Tennessee School
Maumee Roberts, Birmingham (Ala.) Day-School
Julia W. Savage, Northern New York School
Reuben Siggers, West Virginia School for the Colored Deaf
Rebecca Siler, West Virginia School

Natalie R. Simon, West Virginia School
Mildred Sites, West Virginia School
Christopher G. Smith, Georgia School
Kathleen V. F. Stinson, Saskatchewan School
Elma Evadne Strong, Central New York School
Mary Vance, Northern New York School
Helen D. Watrous, Northern New York School
Anne Elizabeth Wilson, Central New York School
Julia Ziskowski, West Peabody, Mass.

Retirement of Noted Teachers.—The list of prominent teachers of the deaf who retired from active duty at the close of the last school year, as announced in the last number of the ANNALS, for September, was not complete. To it must be added the names of the following, each of whom has given a life of able service in the education of the deaf: Mr. George F. Stewart of the Ontario School, Mr. Edward S. Burdick of the New York School, Miss E. Frances Hancock and Miss Katherine E. Freck of the Lexington School, Mr. John E. Travis of the Indiana School, Miss Jeannette J. Christmas and Mr. Barton Sensenig, principals in the Pennsylvania School, and Mr. Arthur J. Godwin, also of the Pennsylvania School.

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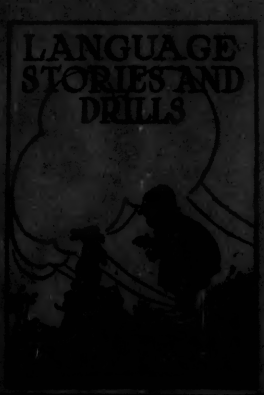

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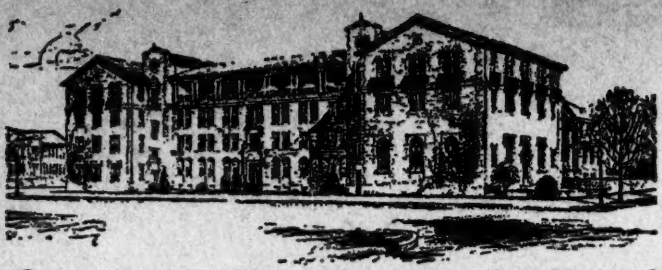

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